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EVERYDAY USES OF ENGLISH

BY

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INTRODUCTION

In this book English is considered as an everyday tool. The principles that underlie effective composition are discussed from the point of view of their application to the problems of daily life. Every fundamental principle is illustrated from the same practical point of view.

A few years ago this utilitarian attitude toward a study of the mother tongue would have required defense, and perhaps apology. To-day it is almost everywhere taken for granted. How can we account for this change? Some of the academic brethren will reply at once that we of this depraved generation have fallen from grace in the matter of language just as we have fallen from grace in all other matters. Teachers of language, say these critics, have given in to the current crowd psychology as have the teachers of most other subjects. Those who are less antagonistic toward new things explain the changed view of the teaching and study of English as an effort at adaptation. In the opinion of these persons the new attitude represents an attempt on the part of conscientious instructors to adapt their materials and their methods to the changing conditions of the world about them. Occasionally, when the slings and arrows from the camp of the critics become too numerous for comfort, the pedagogical pioneers feel compelled to rally to the defense of the new order. But for the most part they are content to regard this as a sham battle, being well aware that in the world outside of academic halls the issue has already been settled.

It is only natural that a changed view of the most valuable and effective approach to the teaching of English should accompany the changed view of the general function of the school and the college. Perhaps we should say the enlarged view. The early curriculum contemplated preparation only for the learned professions. Public schools

and universities of to-day offer preparation for every phase of human activity. In the early curriculum the study of language had but a single aim and that aim was cultural. Latin and Greek were regarded as the only real media of culture. Men who are still with us can remember the time when our own mother tongue was considered unfit for this high purpose. For a long time English was denied a place among college studies. When English finally gained admittance into the collegiate curriculum it was given a place as a possible medium of culture. The subject was taught from a literary and a cultural point of view. In the main this viewpoint in the teaching of English has continued down to the present day. The courses that have been offered, the textbooks that have been used, the specimens that have been studied, and the writing that has been required have all adopted the literary and cultural point of view.

In adopting now a different attitude toward the teaching and study of English there need be no disparagement whatever of literary courses either past or present. These courses have their place in any education worthy of the name. And a most important place it is. The demands of the world for true culture were never greater than they are to-day. Never before has there been such a crying need of those finer qualities which can be developed only by a sympathetic study of art and literature. Men of insight from every walk of life are realizing this need and are advocating a broader and a deeper study of the world's artistic masterpieces.

The assumption that the literary and the practical attitudes toward the teaching and study of English are mutually exclusive is entirely erroneous. Perhaps both attitudes can not be maintained throughout the same course of study. But surely no one will hold that the presence of one English course in a curriculum eliminates all need of other English courses. No normal person would hold that because a student pursues a course in the everyday uses of English he has no need of a study of great literature. Nor would he hold, on the other hand, that because a student has

studied some masterpieces of literature he has no need of an acquaintance with the forms and methods of composition that are employed in the daily affairs of life. To adopt either of these extreme positions is to fall into the most ridiculous kind of fallacy.

All persons are entitled to the joy and inspiration which masterpieces of literature can give. Courses in the study of literature are designed to provide individuals with the key to this great treasure house. Everyone who has the opportunity to enter such courses and to develop his appreciation of the best things in life should avail himself of his opportunity. But not every person is ambitious to produce literary works. Relatively few are interested in a study of the making of literature. On the other hand, every person who is to take any part in the activities of modern life has need of proficiency in the forms of composition which are used in the conduct of daily affairs. Every person has to communicate to others his wants, desires, and purposes. To carry on this communication at all demands a certain degree of proficiency in the use of the mother tongue. To carry on effectively the necessary communication of life demands a high degree of proficiency in speech and in writing.

Can this proficiency be achieved through a formal study of composition? In other words, can English be taught? Efforts to instruct students in the art of writing literary productions have so often resulted in failure that some persons have begun to look upon all composition courses as futile. Some of these persons have gone so far as to hold that the ability to write is inborn and that those from whom the gods have withheld this gift only make fools of themselves by striving after a mastery of expression. But this is carrying the argument to an absurd extreme. It is doubtless true that every person could not become a great literary artist even if he had the desire. Nor could every person become a great engineer, a great banker, or a great surgeon. Nevertheless, the world contains many engineers, bankers, and surgeons who have accomplished things worth while and who have rendered valuable service to society.

Through study and practice they have developed some degree of proficiency in their work. There is reliable evidence to show that the development of some degree of proficiency in correct and effective expression of ideas is equally possible.

Efforts to teach writing as an instrument of daily expression should proceed in the same manner as efforts to teach engineering or banking or doctoring. The student should be brought to a realization of the importance and value of a mastery of his subject. He should be inspired with a desire to learn. He should be provided with the essential definitions, rules, and principles of the subject. And, above all, he should be provided with adequate opportunity for practice. A course in composition that provides these things will justify itself.

Abundant practice is the only gateway to proficiency in writing. The fundamental purpose of a course in composition is to provide an opportunity for abundant practice. For the great majority of students the letters and reports that are universally used in daily affairs furnish the best means of securing this practice. Any normal person can be made to understand the importance of good English as it relates to these everyday types of writing. The student can see numerous applications in daily life of every essential rule and principle that is involved in the art of composition. Every article, bulletin, advertisement, letter, and report becomes a medium of instruction in writing. On every hand there is a wealth of specimen material, showing the learner how to write and how not to write. From every business firm employing a correspondence supervisor or critic come letters, bulletins, booklets, and plans of courses that emphasize the demand for good English and make helpful suggestions for acquiring it. Problems for practice are abundant and near at hand, problems that have virility because they are drawn from the experiences of real life. Under such circumstances any wide-awake student will come to realize that the successful conduct of affairs in any business or profession is in a large measure dependent upon proficiency in the art of expression. He will come to

realize that a mastery of English is essential, not only for the few who aspire to become professional writers or speakers, but for every citizen of the land, no matter what his calling may be.

The fact that everyday types of writing provide the best medium for instruction and practice in composition is receiving wide recognition. Schools and colleges everywhere are offering composition courses designed to utilize the modern student's natural interest in what is real and useful. Instructors in composition are modifying their courses in such a way as to make them more valuable to the large number of students who have no ambition to become makers of literature. Already there have appeared several books that are written from this new point of view. Practically all of these books confine themselves to the business letter and some of them treat only a portion of that subject.

In the books referred to, the sales letter has received the greatest amount of attention. This fact is easily explained when we remember that it was the sales letter writers who first became conscious of the great importance and opportunity of the letter as a practical form of composition. The sales letter has led the way and is entitled to a prominent place in any study of everyday writing. But not all students desire to become specialists in the writing of sales letters any more than they desire to become novelists or short story writers. In a general course, designed to meet the needs of many students, the sales letter should be given its due share of attention but it should not be made the exclusive subject of study. The sales letter field is large enough to warrant a separate course for those who wish to specialize.

It is not very surprising that some of the books that have adopted the utilitarian view of English study should go to the extreme of trying to dispense altogether with the much discussed principles of composition. This attempt can hardly be successful, for there are certain tried and true principles which are as essential to clearness and effectiveness in everyday writing as they are essential to success

in literary writing. It is rather surprising to note the meager treatment that is given in these new books to the elementary and mechanical matters of writing. Where one expects to find these matters emphasized he finds them treated inadequately or omitted altogether. This situation must be due either to a failure to realize the universal need of clear-cut instruction and constant drill in these matters or to a dependency upon other books which do treat them in a satisfactory manner. Thus far there appears to be no work which combines in one volume an adequate treatment of the fundamental principles of composition as they apply to everyday types of writing and an adequate summary of the elements and mechanics of writing.

It is the function of this book to provide in concise and accessible form a treatment of all essential matters involved in everyday uses of English. The first part of the book deals with those types of writing which everyone has occasion to use in the conduct of his daily affairs. The business report, a very important and hitherto much neglected form of composition, is given careful consideration. The principles and problems involved in each type of daily writing are discussed in a concise and summarizing manner. Special effort has been made to put every rule and principle upon a reasonable basis and to show the underlying why's and wherefore's of each method of procedure that is recommended. Emphasis is laid upon the principle of adaptation, the need of adapting means to ends. All rules and principles are stated and considered affirmatively rather than in the "Thou shalt not" manner. The second part of this book deals with those elements out of which all compositions of whatever nature are necessarily constructed. These elements are treated in such a manner as to make the discussion valuable first, for an intensive study, and secondly, for convenient reference. Every important rule and principle is illustrated by means of practical examples. The suggested problems and exercises at the end of the book will furnish material adequate to the needs of a course in everyday uses of English.

MAURICE H. WESEEN.

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M. H. W.

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EVERYDAY USES OF ENGLISH

CHAPTER I

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE GOOD BUSINESS LETTER

1. An Ancient Business Letter

In a Paris museum is the oldest extant business letter. It is from an early Rameses to his banker. Its Egyptian characters are inscribed upon thick papyrus. One investigator has estimated that no less than four months of laborious effort were required to prepare this message for sending. Rameses had no dictaphone. He had no typewriter. He did not even have a pen. Since a copy for his files would have held up this important business four months more, he probably did not have one made. And when the letter was finally completed Rameses did not drop it down the mail chute and forget it. Instead, he dispatched, with many solemn warnings, a division of his regular army, properly commanded and provisioned. And in the course of a few weeks the letter was delivered to the addressee.

2. Daniel Defoe on Letter Writing

In 1726 Daniel Defoe published his book entitled *The Complete English Tradesman, in Familiar Letters; Directing him in all the several Parts and Progressions of Trade, Calculated for the Instruction of our Inland Tradesmen, and especially of Young Beginners*. In this work Defoe recognized the growing importance of the business letter in his own day and made predictions, which have since been fulfilled, concerning the greatly increased use of the letter as an adjunct to future trade and commerce. He deliber-

ately cast his discussion of the complete English tradesman into the form of a series of letters. After an introductory letter on the tradesman's apprenticeship, Defoe devotes his second letter to a treatment "Of the Tradesman's Writing Letters," and his third to a discussion "Of the Trading Stile."

"One great defect of our tradesmen is their not knowing how to write their letters of correspondence in a free, plain, and tradesman-like stile, and to give or receive orders in terms suitable to the nature of the thing they write about." In these words Defoe points to a need which is certainly as great to-day as it was two centuries ago, the need for clearness of expression and adaptation of language to the subject. He goes on to show that the tendency in his day was toward an affected and bombastic style and presents this letter as a specimen:

Sir, The destinies having so appointed it, and my dark stars concurring, that I, who by nature was fram'd for better things, should be put out to a trade, and the gods having been so propitious to me in the time of my servitude, that at length the days are expir'd, and I am launch'd forth into the great ocean of business, I thought fit to acquaint you, that last month I receiv'd my fortune, which by my father's will had been my due two years past, at which time I arriv'd to man's estate, and became major; whereupon I have taken a house in one of the principal streets of the town of —— where I am entred upon my business, and hereby let you know that I shall have occasion for the goods hereafter mention'd, which you may send to me by the carrier.

3. Present-day Importance of the Business Letter

The conditions of business letter writing have changed a great deal since the days of Rameses, and even since the days of Defoe. As the fields of business activity have multiplied and enlarged, geographically and otherwise, the business letter has become more and more important, until to-day it is one of the chief agencies in the conduct of the

world's affairs. A large part of all business is now transacted by the use of letters. The daily outgoing mail from New York City alone contains nearly one million letters. The man at the head of a business enterprise is no longer able to meet face to face those with whom he has business transactions. He is able to write only a small portion of the letters by means of which these transactions are carried on. He is compelled, by the scale of his operations, to delegate this important task to others and to divide it between as many others as the circumstances demand. With this delegated task goes a great responsibility, for the employees who are appointed to write the firm's letters hold its welfare very largely in their own hands. The selection and training of these correspondents is thus a matter of most serious concern to any business institution.

4. Rising Standards of the Business Letter

It was only recently that the great importance of the business letter began to be recognized and that efforts were initiated to make it worthy of its high position in the modern scheme of affairs. It was naturally the largest business enterprises with their tremendous correspondence which first set out to improve their letters and their letter writing processes. By intensive and systematic efforts these concerns have been able to effect a great improvement in a short period of time. Through the influence of suggestion and through imitation, conscious or otherwise, the noticeable improvements in the letters of leading firms have spread rapidly, until to-day the customer is unwilling to accept a poorly constructed letter even from the smallest firm. Whereas a generation ago a well planned and well written business letter stood out conspicuously among the mass of poorly written letters, to-day the conditions are reversed and a poor letter is almost certain to meet with censure. And the end is not yet. Although the change in business correspondence has been marked, there is still much room for improvement. The standards of the business letter are constantly rising and will continue to rise with the increase of efficiency in the general conduct of

affairs. These facts are full of meaning for the person who expects to succeed in modern competitive business, whether on a small scale or on a large scale.

5. Better Letters Movements

The rising standards of business correspondence are reflected in a number of different movements aiming at the improvement of business letters. The greatest organized recognition of the importance of the good business letter is the Better Letters Association, organized at Worcester, Massachusetts, in 1917, by representatives of some firms which had become conscious of the correspondence problem. The association has grown steadily in membership and in activity and has shown itself to be a response to a real need. At the annual meetings the practical problems faced by letter writers have been thoroughly treated by means of lectures and discussions. A semi-monthly bulletin has kept all members of the association informed as to the latest developments in the letter writing field. The fundamental purpose of the association is to be "a clearing house for ideas leading to the betterment of correspondence" and "to impress upon business institutions the possibilities of increasing sales, directly and indirectly, through letters; building good will by correspondence; and securing and training the right type of men as letter representatives." In 1921 the Better Letters Association was affiliated with the Direct by Mail Advertising Association with headquarters in Detroit, Michigan.

6. Correspondence Supervision

The better letters movement is manifested also in the organization by many large concerns of separate correspondence departments. These departments are placed in charge of correspondence heads variously called supervisors, directors, chiefs, and advisers, who are given general control over all letters sent out by the firm. Some of the firms which have taken a leading part in the development of correspondence supervision are the American Rolling Mill Company, Montgomery Ward and Company,

Sears, Roebuck and Company, the Norton Company, the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company, and Wilson and Company.

The correspondence supervisor's first duty is to train a corps of competent correspondents. In doing this he usually conducts a training school in which the members of his department receive instruction designed to help them solve the problems which they must face in their daily work. Men capable of assuming the duties of the correspondence chief are not easy to find. For this reason some large companies prefer to leave their letter writing in charge of the heads of regular departments. Many of these department heads have taken somewhat similar steps to systematize their correspondence and to train their assistants in the principles of effective letter writing.

7. House Instructions to Correspondents

As an adjunct to the work of the correspondence supervisor or as a partial substitute for such a chief many large firms have published booklets of information and suggestions designed to aid their employees in writing better letters. Some of the most noteworthy publications of this kind are the following:

<i>The Mechanics of Correspondence</i>	American Rolling Mill Company
<i>Chalmers Letters</i>	Chalmers Motor Company
<i>The Writing of Good Letters for</i>	
<i>Crane Co.</i>	Crane Company
<i>Writing N. C. R. Letters</i>	The National Cash Register Company
<i>Letter Writing</i>	Joseph T. Ryerson and Son
<i>Principles of Business Letter</i>	
<i>Writing</i>	Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company
<i>Suggestions for Letter Writers</i>	Wilson and Company

Many other firms make it a practice to send out at regular intervals, usually once a week, typewritten or mimeographed bulletins dealing with various phases of correspondence problems. All of these booklets and bulletins make a special effort to impress upon the employee

the value of the good letter as a business asset and the responsibility of the individual letter writer for the welfare of the house. "Every letter we write," says the booklet published by Wilson and Company, "becomes an individual responsibility. To our reader we, you or I, become Wilson and Company. What we write becomes a permanent record, either for or against Wilson and Company, and affecting in some degree the prestige and prosperity of the company." "You represent the National Cash Register Company," says that company to its employees. "Your letters should show its character, spirit, and ideals. Our company's reputation depends on you." The Chalmers Motor Company lays emphasis upon the responsibility of individual correspondents in these words: "Never forget that the letters which go out from the Chalmers factory represent the Chalmers Motor Company. When you are writing a business letter, the company is speaking through you. The recipient of the letter has perhaps never met a single person connected with the factory. He gets his impression of the Chalmers Company from the letter you write him. Hence it is very important that the letters which go out shall be the best letters it is possible to write."

8. Practical Courses of Study

The growing recognition of the importance of good business writing is further evidenced in the many courses of study which have been organized in the past few years. Correspondence supervisors or others trained as writers have been called in by many firms to conduct courses of study for their employees. In some instances these classes have been held in the evenings and attendance has been voluntary. In other instances classes have been held during office hours and attendance has been compulsory. In response to the growing demand for competent business writers many correspondence courses in business writing have been organized, first by commercial schools and more recently by state universities and other public institutions of learning. The universities of the country, and in par-

ticular those maintained by the states, have begun to realize that they can and should contribute something to this movement toward higher standards in business writing and toward higher business standards in general. Many of these institutions are now offering courses designed to make such a contribution and these courses are everywhere meeting with a ready reception.

9. Letter Writing as a Profession

The various better letters movements make it clearly evident that from the standpoint of business enterprises already established the good business letter is a subject worthy of serious study. It is a subject equally worthy of consideration from the standpoint of the youth who is preparing himself for entrance into or advancement in the modern business world. Colleges of commerce are providing young men and young women with that grounding in principles and that familiarity with social and industrial problems which are essential to a professional point of view in the conduct of business. As various departments of business become recognized more and more as specialized professions, collegiate training for these activities becomes increasingly important.

The correspondence department is destined to play a prominent part in the business of the future. One man of much experience in affairs predicts that we shall see the time when every business worthy of the name will employ men and women who are especially gifted and trained to look after its written messages. This work will demand of anyone who aspires to leadership the best possible education and training, both in the fundamental principles of modern business and in the fundamental principles of modern business letter writing. He who would write successfully for business or about business must be a master of his native tongue and of the principles of clear and effective composition. He must be thoroughly grounded in the grammar of his language. He must attain habitual correctness in spelling and punctuation and all matters of technique. Above all, he must develop the

power to think clearly and to adapt himself to every thought-situation as it arises. And it is just here that composition study can render its chief service, in emphasizing the inseparable nature of thought and its expression. We cannot think at all without words, and we cannot think clearly without accurate words. The true aim of composition study is the development of correct thinking through constant and continued effort to secure correct expression. Business men everywhere are voicing their belief in the fundamental importance of this study.

CHAPTER II

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF THE BUSINESS LETTER

10. Know Your Purpose

The old saying "He who aims at nothing is pretty sure to hit it" is nowhere applicable with more truth than in the writing of the business letter. If your letter is to be a good one, that is, if it is to get results, you as the writer must know in advance just what results you desire to get. You must have a specific purpose and you must be thoroughly conscious of that purpose. An occasional letter of the hit-or-miss variety may happen to produce results. But the distinguishing characteristic of the successful correspondent is his definiteness of purpose and his ability to accomplish his purpose every time.

11. Know Your Subject

The correspondent who is to be successful in accomplishing his purpose must be thoroughly versed in the subject about which he is to write. He cannot collect an overdue account, or make an adjustment, or handle a request for an extension of credit unless he knows thoroughly the general principles underlying these problems, the general policy of the house in dealing with them, and the circumstances of the particular case that is before him. If you have not already done so, you should familiarize yourself with these facts and principles before you put pen to paper. If this process causes some delay in the case before you, send at once a letter of acknowledgment, stating as nearly as possible the date upon which your final answer will be sent.

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12. Know Your Man

Success in accomplishing one's purpose by means of letters is dependent largely upon a knowledge of the person addressed. All men are alike in many respects and a good correspondent should be well acquainted with these common characteristics of mankind. In other words, he should be a serious and persistent student of human nature. He should know the common virtues and vices of men, their sources of strength and of weakness, and their modes of reaction to various stimuli. The correspondent has special opportunities to pursue this most fascinating of all subjects of study. He has special opportunities, also, to develop in himself those qualities of understanding and patience and sympathy and vision which are essential to genuine leadership.

Besides having a knowledge of the characteristics common to men, the letter writer should have as much familiarity as possible with the particular man whom he is addressing, with his circumstances, with his needs and desires, and with his own peculiar outlook on life. For with all of their similarities no two men are exactly alike and no two of them will react in exactly the same manner. The successful correspondent is the one who knows just how far he can proceed on general principles and just how he must vary his approach in each individual case. He must be a master of the principle of adaptation, of shaping means to ends.

13. Do the Job Promptly

Promptness in answering letters is one of the fundamental virtues of a good correspondent. Some firms require that all letters must be acknowledged on the day they are received, whether or not final answer can be made at that time. This requirement is based upon an understanding of a fact of human nature, namely, that every person likes to receive immediate attention, whether it is favorable or unfavorable. Almost any firm will, of course, prefer delay to hastily constructed letters which fail in their purpose and endanger the future welfare of the

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business. You must realize, on the other hand, that even a good letter will fall short of its mark if the person addressed has become enraged through long waiting for your reply and has been compelled to write a second or a third time before receiving his answer. Remember that what may seem a matter of mere routine to you probably seems to be a most serious matter to him.

The justifiable delays resulting from necessary investigation constitute a very small portion of the large number of delays in answering letters. Tardiness and procrastination seem to be among the commonest vices of mankind. As a correspondent, you should make special effort to overcome any tendency to procrastinate. You should learn that there is only one proper time in which to do to-day's work. That time is to-day. To-morrow will bring its own tasks and its own problems, in the midst of which to-day's delayed duties will inevitably be slighted. Lincoln recognized the importance of this principle. In his "Notes for a Law Lecture," he says: "The leading rule for the lawyer, as for the man of every other calling, is diligence. Leave nothing for to-morrow which can be done to-day. Never let your correspondence fall behind. Whatever piece of business you have in hand, before stopping do all the labor pertaining to it which can then be done."

Getting each day's work done properly requires system. If letter writing is only a part of your work, set aside a definite portion of each day in which to write or dictate your letters. Select this period with a view to your own best condition. Most dictators find themselves able to compose most effectively in the earlier part of the day, but this may vary with individuals. Select your letter writing period with a view also to the hours of collection by the mailing department or the hours of outgoing mail. By attending to these details and by developing habits of system and efficiency you will be able to do better work and to do it more promptly. The National Association of Credit Men has given much publicity to this slogan: "Promptness in correspondence is one of the best of credit and business builders."

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14. Do the Job Thoroughly

No one is more detested by his fellow men in general and by his superiors or employers in particular than the person who, when he is assigned a certain task, does it so carelessly or so incompletely that it must be checked and revised and perhaps done over entirely by someone else. Conversely, every supervisor and every employer is continually searching for men who are willing to assume their proper share of the total task and who can be relied upon to do with completeness and thoroughness the work assigned to them. These qualities of completeness and thoroughness are important in all business activity and are absolutely indispensable in the letters which are to represent a company to its distant customers. The correspondent who makes an incomplete job of a first letter and has to write several more when one should have been enough is not only wasting his employer's time but may be losing a valuable customer and indirectly creating an unfavorable impression among many people.

How can you do thoroughly a job of letter writing? Collect all of the required data before you begin to construct your letter. Be sure that your information consists of genuine facts, and if any points are in the least doubtful, verify them. If there has been previous correspondence on the same matter, get this before you, analyze it, and make sure that you understand fully all that has been done and exactly what is the present status of the case. Decide definitely what you are going to do in this letter and try to realize just how this will affect the whole matter. Resolve to do the job so thoroughly and so completely that when it is done it will be done for good. Remember with Emerson that "The reward of a thing well done is to have done it."

15. Do the Job According to an Advance Plan

Just as you must plan your day's work if you are to get through it successfully, so you must plan each individual

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letter if it is to measure up to its best possibilities. Advance planning is important in every human activity and it is especially important in composition. For the task of conveying thoughts from one mind to another is more difficult than the task of conveying salmon from Seattle to New York or oranges from Los Angeles to Philadelphia. Efforts to transfer thought result in failure much oftener than do attempts to transfer commodities. And this is precisely your task when you are writing a letter, to transmit from your own mind to another certain facts and ideas. You can get in these days insurance on almost anything, including your salmon or oranges in transit, but no one has yet undertaken to insure success in the enterprise of thought transmission. The nearest possible guarantee of success in this enterprise lies in following an advance plan which is designed to lead the reader's mind by natural and logical steps to the desired conclusion and action. You will do well to outline these steps, mentally if the problem is a simple one, on paper if it is a complex one. Jot down in phrase or sentence form the topics to be developed and then arrange these in a logical order. What will be the most logical order in a certain letter can be determined only from a study of the circumstances of that particular case. Some of the tried and tested methods of organizing the materials in different types of letters are discussed in later chapters of this book. The thing to note here is that a plan is indispensable to a good letter and that there is some best plan for every individual letter that is written.

Never let yourself be deluded into the notion that other people write without effort and that it is an admission of weakness for you to proceed so laboriously. There are doubtless a few geniuses who dash off their letters or other compositions without feeling the need of stopping for preliminaries. But it is no disgrace to admit that you are not in this exceptional class. You will find, furthermore, that those who seem to write without effort usually work, or have worked, as hard as the rest of us. Through long practice they have developed some degree of skill in concealing their labors. Whether it is baldly prominent as in

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the work of a novice or artfully concealed as in the work of a master, a plan there must be.

16. Do the Job Economically

The principle of economy, a maximum of result with a minimum of effort, applies to the task of letter writing as much as it does to any other business activity. Unnecessary matter in a letter wastes the time both of the writer and of the reader. Every letter should be concise. This does not mean that every letter should be short, for brevity is a virtue which may easily become a vice. No one would recommend brevity which sacrifices clearness or completeness. Nor would anyone advise such briefness as results in discourtesy. One can be penny wise and pound foolish in the disposition of his words just as he can be in the disposition of his dollars. It is folly to establish arbitrary limits beyond which no letter must go under any circumstances. A letter, like a piece of cloth, should be cut for the particular instance in which it is to be used. Ready-made letters will not fit in all cases any more than will ready-made garments. Make your letter long enough to cover your subject thoroughly and to insure that it will be clear to your reader, and no longer. Remember that it is as possible to waste the reader's time by being incomplete as by including extraneous matter. The undue brevity which leads to the necessity of writing several letters when one should have sufficed is uneconomical for all concerned.

Economy in letters results chiefly from clear thinking and advance planning, from knowing at the outset exactly where you want to go and how you are going to get there. Economy is dependent upon a wise adaptation of means to ends. Adopt short-cuts of proved value, but remember always that mere brevity is not necessarily economy. You will be aided greatly by a careful selection of words and by an elimination of the useless expressions which are found in the correspondence of many who are not yet aware of the rising standards of modern business letter writing. Some of these expressions, once common in busi-

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ness letters but no longer found in the correspondence of the best firms, are included in the following list:

along this line
and oblige
as per
at an early date
at hand
attached hereto
at the earliest possible moment
at this time
at your earliest convenience
awaiting your further favor
beg to remain
beg to state
by return mail
contents carefully noted
enclosed herewith
esteemed favor
even date
hand you herewith
has come to hand
in reply would say
our Mr. Blank
permit me to state
please be advised
present writing
recent date
replying to your favor
take my pen in hand
thanking you in advance
valued favor
would state
writer wishes to state
yours of recent date

17. Do the Job so as to Build Good Will

Modern business is built upon good will. This is peculiarly true of business done by mail, in which buyer and seller never meet and never have the advantages of face-to-face acquaintance. The wonderful achievements in mail merchandising reveal the possibilities of developing confidence and good will at great distances. Success in this field is based upon deliberate effort to convince customers

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that distance is no bar to honest values and conscientious service. Because actions always speak louder than words, a consistent policy of providing complete satisfaction in every individual case is the fundamental requisite in building good will at a distance. Correspondence plays an important part in this process. If you would gain and hold the good will of distant customers, you must show a friendly interest in their welfare and a desire to co-operate with them. This interest must be genuine, for a false display of interest will soon be detected and will cause a serious reaction.

The correspondent must provide some substitute for the genial handclasp and hearty greeting of personal contact. His every letter should be cordial and courteous. "No company and no individual," says the author of "Chalmers Letters," "is big enough to dispense with courtesy." Another writer says, "The one unpardonable sin of the business correspondent is discourtesy." The correspondent has plenty of opportunity to commit this sin, for his daily work is full of incidents which disappoint and exasperate. This is especially true in the fields of collection and complaint, in which the correspondent has to deal with some of the discouraging weaknesses of human nature. But the good correspondent will never give way to his anger or indulge in sharp insinuations, which serve only to arouse resentment.

Courtesy, together with the other qualities of a good letter, is conveyed by the common medium of words. But courtesy is not merely a matter of polite words and expressions. These may be used by anyone. Many of them have been so much abused that they no longer have any real meaning. It used to be the fashion to close every letter in some such manner as this: "Hoping ever to merit your highest approval and to be ever worthy of your valued patronage, believe me to be, Sir, your most humble and obedient servant." We have discarded these superfluous expressions because they no longer have any meaning. Modern correspondents understand that the only real basis of good will is a sympathetic understanding of the other

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man's side of the case and a sincere desire to do everything possible for his welfare. This understanding and this desire are well expressed in the following sentences from a booklet entitled "Men and Bonds." "You will probably find one of the more than fifty offices of the National City Company within easy reach. But if it is not convenient for you to call in person, a letter from you will receive the same prompt and thoughtful attention from the National City Company that a personal call itself would receive." "If one general rule could cover the writing of letters," says the author of "Suggestions for Letter Writers," published by Wilson and Company, "it would be this: Treat every letter you receive with the same consideration you crave for the letters which you, in turn, write." This is obviously nothing other than a special application of the golden rule. Good will is indispensable to modern business, and the only way of insuring it is by conveying it in your every communication and in your every action.

18. Do the Job in Accordance with Accepted Standards of Correctness

In every one of life's activities there are developed, as time goes on, certain standards of correctness by means of which men can distinguish a good piece of work from a poor one. The art of expression through the medium of language, one of life's most necessary activities, has its own particular standards. These standards have been developed through ages of usage. Some of them are very definite, as for instance the laws of grammar, enabling us to distinguish clearly between right and wrong usage. Others are less specific, although hardly less important, as for example the conventions of propriety and good taste. If you are going to be a good letter writer you must be well acquainted with these standards, both with those which distinguish the right from the wrong and with those which distinguish the better from the worse. You must realize that written expression is always more formal than spoken, and that although the business letter takes many liberties

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with traditional literary conventions there are limits of informality beyond which it cannot go without being judged incorrect as a written message.

As the representative of a business institution you are in duty bound to respect and to maintain the dignity of that institution. Dignity demands correctness in every detail. A slogan adopted by Joseph T. Ryerson and Son serves to emphasize the importance of correctness. This slogan reads: "The first consideration in this office is to do things exactly right." The man who receives your letter may be far from expert in the art of expression, but even so he will appreciate excellence in your letter. If he is versed in the problems of writing, any error on your part, or any departure from accepted usage, will distract his attention from what you are saying and will direct it to your manner of saying it. The writer who allows attention to be thus distracted is bound to fail. Furthermore, errors in the use of words, in the construction of sentences, and in the punctuation of parts are often the cause of much confusion and loss. Errors in spelling the name or mistaking the title of the person addressed work directly against all efforts to build good will. Errors such as these indicate either ignorance or carelessness, and both are inexcusable in modern letter writing.

The present standards of correct usage relating to the external form of the letter are very definite. Certain variations occur in minor details, but in all of its principal features the business letter form has become an established and universally accepted convention. As a letter writer you should know this form in every phase and detail. You should know the variant forms and the arguments for and against each. Perhaps your employers will provide you with the particular form which they expect you to follow in all correspondence for them. But even if they do this, you will do well to observe and to study the forms used by others and instead of following blindly the form which you are given, learn the reasons for and the history of each of its parts. The modern business letter form is, like other conventions, the result of long development, during

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the course of which many changes from many sources have been incorporated into it.

19. Do Each Succeeding Job Better than the Previous One

“Drive your job or it will be driving you” is the slogan which a large corporation keeps constantly before its employees. “Stay in line and keep in step” is the slogan similarly used by another company. These slogans are practical business recognitions of a principle that runs all through life, namely, that when any living organism ceases to improve it is already on the way to extermination. Fossil remains of extinct species reveal the fact that nature has tried out many forms for every one that now survives. This principle, plainly operative in the physical world, is even more emphatically true in the realms of intellect. Constant activity and striving for improvement are essential, not only to progress but even to survival. When we cease to go forward mentally we immediately start going backward, and unless we stop this retrogression we shall soon be eliminated from the life of intelligence.

The letter writer has excellent opportunities for self-cultivation. Each succeeding letter presents in concrete form a chance to improve upon previous efforts. If he is under supervision he should accept criticism in the proper spirit, remembering the words of Franklin, “He that can bear a reproof and mend by it, if he is not wise, is in a fair way of being so.” Whether or not you are subject to supervision and criticism by others, you will do well to make for yourself occasional inventories of your strong and weak points as a letter writer. Note in particular any changes which have occurred since a previous accounting with yourself. The demands of your own position will furnish you with a standard of measurement for this inventory. Lists prepared by others may assist you somewhat in preparing one for yourself. The author of “Chalmers Letters” sums up the requisites of a good correspondent under these heads: 1. Health, 2. Honesty, 3. Ability, 4. Initiative, 5. Knowledge of the Business,

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6. Tact, 7. Courtesy, 8. Industry, 9. Open-mindedness, 10. Enthusiasm. The author of "Suggestions for Letter Writers," published by Wilson and Company, presents the following summary of the qualifications which the writer of successful letters should possess:

1. A thorough knowledge of his subject.
2. Absolute faith in his product, and absolute loyalty to his house.
3. A working knowledge of his competitor's product and methods.
4. A knowledge of the essentials of English composition.
5. Consideration for his reader.
6. A burning desire to make every inquirer a customer and every complainant a better customer.
7. By endowment or training: self-confidence, imagination, tact, keen observation, even temper, enthusiasm, originality.

These two lists of qualifications, representative of many which have been prepared, will guide you in checking up your own case, in finding your weak points, and if you are really ambitious, will stimulate you to make some systematic effort looking toward improvement. If you are to make improvement, you must study the principles underlying the art of writing. You must understand these principles in their relation to the everyday tasks that confront you. You must make an intelligent application of these principles in your daily writing. Remember always that improvement depends chiefly upon practice and that a knowledge of rules is valuable only in so far as that knowledge is actually applied. The importance of continued improvement, both to the individual and to society, is stressed by Henry Ford in these words: "The man who does better and more productive work to-day than he did yesterday is a social reformer of the highest type. He is doing something genuine. He is squaring his own account with the world, and helping others to square themselves."

Mr. John B. Opdycke, of New York City, has prepared a creed for business correspondents, which is reprinted here through the kind permission of the author.

A BUSINESS LETTER WRITER'S CREED

I believe in the gospel of Better Business Letters.

I believe in Dignified Business Letter Form, in Courteous Business Letter Tone, in Enlightened Business Letter Attitude.

I believe in the Elimination of Business Letter Bromides, in the Economy of Business Letter Phraseology, in the Elucidation of Business Letter Purpose, and in the Energizing of Business Letter Content.

I believe in Long Ideas and Short Diction, in Long Sense and Short Sentences, in Long Power and Short Powergraphs, in Long Tact and Short Tactics, in Long Courtesy and in No Kicks At All, in Business Letters.

I believe that every Business Letter should be a Human Document written by a Humanized Man or Woman to Human Beings, with Human Feeling, for Human Reasons.

I believe that there is no Greater Opportunity in Poem, Drama, or Romance for the Play of Imagination and the Exercise of Genius than exists between the *Gentlemen* and the *Very truly yours* of the Business Letter.

I believe that every Business Letter may be made a Potential Power, not only in the Establishment and Maintenance of Agreeable Human Relationships, but *as well* in the Building of Enterprise, in the Development of Empire, and in the Amity among Peoples.

I believe that every Business Letter indisputably reveals the Standard of Culture, Character, and Capacity of the Man and the House behind it, and that it measures to the balance of a feather the Ambitions and Abilities of Both.

I believe that every Business Letter I write is either a Fiction or a Philosophy, a Blunder or a Builder, a Bang or a Boost—and that there is no middle ground.

AND

I believe that I have it in me to Illuminate every Business Letter I write with a Spirit of Broad Sympathy and General Good Fellowship toward the Individual to whom it is written.

CHAPTER III

THE MECHANICAL LAYOUT AND MAKE-UP OF THE BUSINESS LETTER

20. The Importance of Good Letter Form

There is at present a generally accepted form for the business letter. This form is the result of long development and long continued effort to secure the best possible combination of usefulness and attractiveness. There are, to be sure, certain variations in minor details of letter form, just as there are variations in all other matters of usage and custom. But these variations are governed by the same principles; they represent efforts to secure greater utility or more attractive appearance.

The construction of the business letter in a certain definite way is first of all a matter of utility; it is one manifestation of the principle of efficiency, upon which all modern business is built. The presence in every letter of certain parts in a certain established order enables the letter writer to make the external form of his letters a matter of habit and enables him to concentrate his attention upon the content. Established usage enables the writer to accomplish his purpose with greater certainty than he could if he had to divide his attention in each particular case between the content and the form. An established form represents also a saving of time on every letter that is written, and when we consider the millions of business messages which are written every day we see that this saving is of great economic importance. Established usage in letter form is almost equally valuable to the reader in that it enables him to see at a glance just what a letter contains and to refer without loss of time to any of its parts.

But utility is not the only consideration which has led to the general adoption of a definite letter form. Every normal human being has some appreciation of harmony and proportion. We are all more attracted and pleased by an artistic piece of work than by a crude one. The first thing which we notice about a letter as we open it, whether we are conscious of the fact or not, is its general appearance. Before we are aware of it we have formed an impression, favorable or unfavorable, of that letter; and first impressions, as we all know, are important influences in determining later action. We may be able, by deliberate exercise of the reason, to overcome the initial impression. But not one person in a thousand will put forth the extra effort required to do this. If you want your letter to convey an impression of substantiality and reliability, construct it with careful attention to every detail of its mechanical make-up.

21. Standard Business Stationery

The stationery of modern business has become standardized through usage and custom. The regular letter size, eight and one-half by eleven inches, is now almost universally used for business correspondence. Uniformity in size has obvious advantages, both to the writer and to the receiver of letters. For purposes of economy, the half-sheet, eight and one-half by five and one-half inches, is sometimes used. Few firms favor this size even for short letters in their regular correspondence, but many use it for internal correspondence between departments and between individuals.

Besides these regular and generally used sizes, certain others are sometimes used. The two-fold sheet, usually about seven and a half by ten and a half inches, has recently come into favor with some firms. The note sheet of four pages is used in some correspondence, and particularly by some publishing houses. Many form letters have recently appeared on stationery that is a cross between the note sheet and the standard full sheet. This form consists of four pages eight and one-half by eleven inches in size,

of which sometimes two and sometimes four are used. Other sizes are often tried out in an effort to meet special needs or to attract attention by novelty. For the sake of being different, odd sizes and odd colors are sometimes used. But the eight and a half by eleven inch sheet of pure white paper remains the standard form.

The quality of paper should also be considered. A firm that is national in its scope cannot afford to send out its written messages upon flimsy sheets which easily blot and smudge and tear. Economy may dictate the use of lightweight paper for house memoranda, but in its regular correspondence every firm should use a good quality of bond which will take ink without blotting, which will stand some rough usage and survive the test of filing, and which will be representative of the dignity and reliability of the business.

22. The Good Letter-head

The selection of a letter-head is governed by the desire for utility and beauty. The purpose of a letter-head is, first of all, to convey certain information about the person or persons whom the letter is to represent, and to do this with a saving of time to the writer by having the information printed or lithographed on the sheet. The minimum of information which all letter-heads convey is the name and address. Sometimes the names of certain officers are given in addition to the firm name. Often the address includes, besides the street or post-office address, the telephone number. Sometimes the cable address is added. Other information may be included in the letter-head, but it should be selected with the greatest of care. It is well to include some information concerning the nature of the business, especially when the firm name does not indicate this. But it is inadvisable to try to crowd a whole advertisement into the letter-head. Large blocks of small type are best avoided. Select a distinctive slogan or trade-mark and place it conspicuously on the page. Leave plenty of white space around it. Remember that a few words carefully chosen and placed will give your letter-head more

advertising value than ten times as many words crowded into the same space.

The artistic appearance of the letter-head is hardly less important than the information which it contains. A distinctive form of heading attaches itself inseparably to a certain firm, and it is important that the impression which it creates should be a favorable one. The simplest design is without doubt the best. A few words well arranged have more effectiveness and more beauty than many words crowded together. The choice of type should be given consideration, both as to size and style. The use of colors is sometimes effective, but is not to be generally recommended. Pictures and cuts are, as a rule, not employed by the most dignified and reliable firms. Illustrations and sweeping generalizations about the superiority of the firm have been cheapened by sensational letter writers to such an extent that some of the best companies now exclude from their letter-heads all efforts at direct advertising. You will do well to gather some actual business letters and to study the variations in letter-heads.

23. Proper Margins and Spacing

The appearance of a letter and the ease with which it can be read are dependent largely upon the position of the letter on the page. The relation between the occupied and unoccupied space, both as to amount and position, should be carefully considered. There should be a reasonable margin around the entire letter, and the more nearly even this margin is, the better. The best present usage favors a left-hand margin of at least an inch, or ten type-writer spaces. Some correspondents prefer fifteen spaces, while a few use only five. The right-hand margin is often somewhat smaller than the left-hand, but the best appearance is secured by leaving the same amount of space on both sides. Especial care should be taken to keep the right-hand margin even, as a jagged ending of lines is a chief source of unattractive appearance in many letters. It is sometimes difficult to keep the right-hand line perfectly even, but a careful writer can so arrange and divide

his words as to approximate this very closely. The space between the end of the letter and the bottom of the page should, similarly, equal as nearly as possible the space between the beginning of the letter and the top of the page. It is poor form to crowd your letter so close to the bottom that there is barely room for the signature.

In sales letters the margins are sometimes used for conveying parts of the message. A thought to which the writer wishes to give particular emphasis may be placed in the side margin in the form of a note, or may be placed at the bottom of the page in the form of a postscript. Marginal notes and postscripts are not to be generally recommended, for they often convey the impression that the writer did not plan his letter in advance. But occasionally such devices can be used with good effect. When they are used, the letter should be so spaced and centered as to accommodate them without causing any appearance of crowding. The value of such notes is dependent almost entirely upon their conspicuous position. A few words surrounded by a liberal area of white space stand out with the greatest emphasis.

In order to secure attractive appearance and to make your letter easy to read, you must also take into account the spacing within and between the different parts of the letter. The general principle is that there should be more space between the parts than between the lines within each part. If you are single spacing between lines, you should leave at least two spaces between the parts of the letter. That is to say, if you single space between the lines in the heading and in the introductory address, you should double space between these parts. You should, similarly, double space between the introductory address and the salutation, and between the salutation and the body of the letter. The same rule applies to the ending of the letter. Double space between the body and the complimentary close, and between the complimentary close and the signature. Some writers prefer three spaces between parts even in letters with single spaced lines, but the use of two spaces between parts is the most common and the most satisfactory

practice. If you are double spacing between lines, you should increase the space between parts to at least three lines. The practice of double spacing between paragraphs is now almost universal in business letters, in those that have indented paragraphs as well as in those that follow the block form.

The suggestions here given are based upon a study of the usage of many reputable firms. But arbitrary rules concerning margins and spacing should not be laid down. The general principle underlying the best current usage is that the letter should be well centered on the page, and should give an impression of balance and proportion. In order to give your letter these qualities you must adapt the form to the amount of material which is to go into the letter. You must estimate in advance the space which will be required by the letter and vary your margins and intervals accordingly. If you are using a full sheet for a very short letter, you will do well to leave unusually large margins, especially at the top and bottom, and to increase the spaces both within and between parts. If your letter is somewhat longer than average, you will do well to decrease these white spaces and thus avoid the necessity of using a second page. It is particularly undesirable to carry over to a second page only the ending of a letter. If you must use a second page, leave a liberal margin at the bottom of the first and carry over several complete sentences. Some writers make it a rule to leave at least one inch of space between the signature and the bottom of the page. But this, like other absolute rules, is inferior to a developed ability to adapt the spacing of every letter to its content. The following letters show how this principle of adaptation can be applied.

Kansas City, Missouri,
February 1, 1922.

Miss Helen Pixley,
231 State Street,
Kansas City, Mo.

Dear Madam:

We have just received a letter from the Elite Blouse Company stating that you are interested in their hand-made blouses.

We carry a very large assortment of these elegant and distinctive blouses and shall be glad to show them to you at any time.

Very truly yours,

Crist and Wilson Co.

BJH

New York, New York,
July 18, 1922.

Mr. Richard Yarmouth,
Chicago, Illinois.

Dear Sir:

We are very glad to send you under separate cover to-day, a copy of our catalogue "Tralaer Color Prints and Etchings." Thank you for the opportunity to interest you in our reproductions.

You will find in this catalogue pictures that you can live without—but not so well; pictures that are a "rich source of happiness"; and pictures that you will want to look at every day because they are a joy and an inspiration.

Very truly yours,

Tralaer Company.

Stamford, Conn.,
February 1, 1922.

Mr. W. S. Bartow,
Jamestown, Ohio.

Dear Sir:

Thank you for your letter regarding window draperies for the rooms in which you are using the paper attached to your letter.

We have made a selection of a number of materials which would harmonize exceptionally well with the tones contained in this paper. Attached to each cutting is a tag giving the width of the material and the price.

We are sorry that the last edition of our special booklet on prints and chintzes and methods of window drapery is completely exhausted. We shall be glad, however, to place your name on our list for a copy of the next edition, which will be ready sometime next month.

If you have any problems in the style or methods of window drapery, Mr. Alzo Andre, our head decorator, will be very glad to assist you. This service will place you under no obligation whatever.

We shall be happy to hear from you.

Very truly yours,

Beauchamp Company, Importers.

24. The Question of Indentation

The question of indentation is one of the most troublesome of the many questions relating to the present-day business letter form. Usage is less definitely settled on this point than on almost any other. The individual correspondent may have this troublesome matter, as well as the other matters of mechanical form, settled for him by definite instructions from his superiors. But even in this case he will do well to acquaint himself with the differences in current practice, and the reasons underlying these differences. Whoever decides upon the form to be followed in a particular office or department must take his stand with one or the other of two groups, either with those who adhere to the older style of using indentation or with those who prefer the newer block form. His decision will be determined in part by his regard for utility and in part by the degree of his conservatism in matters of conventional usage. Some people seem naturally to prefer a thing just because it is new, whereas others are inclined to shun it for the same reason.

The utilitarian argument is used in support of both the older and the newer form. Adherents of the older form point out that indentation at the beginning of paragraphs was devised for the purpose of setting off each of these units from its fellows. They hold that the additional white space has the double effect of preparing the mind for a change in the thought and of emphasizing the first words in each unit by making them more conspicuous. Advocates of the newer block form, on the other hand, maintain that the paragraph units are more distinctly set off from each other by doubling the spaces between them than they are by indentation. Such loss of emphasis as there may be they hold to be more than compensated for by the saving of time effected by the block form, which enables the typist to throw back the carriage of his machine always to the same point.

The question of indentation concerns not only the beginning of paragraphs, but also the succeeding lines in the introductory address. It has long been the custom to begin

this part of the letter on the left-hand margin, and to indent each succeeding line about one-half inch, or five typewriter spaces. The newer form is to begin all lines of the introductory address on the left-hand margin of the letter. The block form for this part of the letter has become very popular, and is now used by many correspondents who still continue to indent their paragraphs. A strict regard for consistency would lead one to avoid this mixing of the older and newer forms, and to adopt definitely one or the other. But matters of usage and custom often have little basis in logic, and this mixed form may easily become the accepted standard. A glance at the letters reprinted in this book will show that it has already been adopted by some leading firms. There are some, however, who are opposing this tendency. "Never use the block form," says one correspondence supervisor to his subordinates, "for it is neither correct nor artistic." The student of letter writing will do well to study thoroughly this difference of opinion and of usage.

If you are going to use indentation, be sure to indent uniformly. Indent the first paragraph just as much as any other, and no more. Some writers use five typewriter spaces and some use ten. Either of these forms is correct and acceptable. The difference between them is a matter of personal preference. If you are writing with the pen, indent about an inch. And remember that pen-written letters should always be indented, for in these good usage has never sanctioned any other form. The block form is distinctly a typewriter form, brought about by the general use of the machine and adapted to its mechanical construction. This form is already used wholly or partially in most typed letters, and will doubtless become the standard for such letters. When that time comes this form will perhaps be adopted also for the pen-written letter. For the present, the writer of such letters is restricted to the older indented form, whereas the typist has a choice between this older form and the newer block form.

The following letters illustrate: first, the indented form; second, the block form; and, third, the mixed form.

1. *The Indented Form.*

Columbus, Ohio,
January 24, 1922.

Board of Education,
Kilden, Ohio.

Gentlemen:

I am very anxious for an engagement with your board with a view of appointment as architect for the new school building which you are contemplating.

I am enclosing a list of school and other buildings in the state of Ohio, which I have designed, and court the fullest investigation of all these buildings.

I should be pleased to come to Kilden at a time convenient to you, if the board wishes, and discuss possible styles and methods. I can inform you fully as to size, type, requirements, and costs of modern school buildings, and indicate to you the very best possible methods of procedure. This will not obligate you in any way.

Very truly yours,

JKL—HG

2. *The Block Form.*

Chicago, Illinois,
January 29, 1922.

Miss Ethel Wright,
Omaha, Nebraska.

Dear Madam:

Your very pleasing inquiry has just been received and we are pleased to enclose our booklet "Betty Lee Blouses."

Because you are now probably planning your fall wardrobe, it would seem advisable for you to see and examine personally the many beautiful and exclusive models we have created for you.

No matter which style you may select, you will find in every design, in every finishing touch, all that wonderful charm and grace that so enhances the wearer of Betty Lee Blouses.

We know that you will be delighted with the styles when you see them and that you will be completely satisfied with the quality when you wear them. You will be sure that you have blouses of the best quality and latest vogue in fine needlecraft.

You will find that The Richmond Ladies' Shop of Omaha, Nebraska, is featuring in their Misses' Department a most carefully selected and alluring collection of Betty Lee Blouses. We should suggest that you visit the store personally if that is possible, for they will be most happy to help you make your selection.

May we have the pleasure of hearing from you and learning how satisfied you are with the styles you have selected?

Very truly yours,

BETTY LEE BLOUSE COMPANY.

3. *The Mixed Form.*

Midvale, Nebraska,
January 14, 1922.

Sears, Roebuck and Company,
Chicago, Illinois.

Gentlemen:

Please send me, by American Express,
the following furniture as advertised in your cata-
log No. 28:

1 China Cabinet, No. 6891.....	\$49.00
1 Table, No. T-5498.....	27.50
6 Queen Anne Chairs, No. 561...	50.00
1 Mission Set, No. 1516.....	190.00
	<hr/>
	\$316.50

I enclose my check No. 501 for \$316.50
in payment.

I should like to receive a copy of your
grocery catalog.

Very truly yours,

25. Standardized Letter Forms

Matters of usage within any given letter should, of course, be consistent with each other. The question, "Should all letters sent out by a particular firm or correspondent follow one and the same form?" is more difficult to answer. It is a fundamental principle in modern letter writing that each letter should be adapted to the particular subject under consideration and the particular individual to whom it is addressed. Can this adaptation be carried out within the limits of one prescribed letter form? If it can be, well and good. But the real purpose of the individual letter should never be sacrificed to a desire for uniformity. Perhaps two or three forms can be prepared which will meet different situations more satisfactorily than can a single one. If the correspondent has the proper qualifications, he should be allowed some freedom in the selection and modification of the form best suited to a particular case.

There are obviously good reasons for adopting one or more standard letter forms. Too many letters are written by inferior correspondents who cannot be trusted to compose or even to adopt the most suitable forms. An executive who has made a special study of this matter can without doubt prepare a better form or set of forms than can these inferior correspondents. And it will be in the interest of economy for him to do this. Typists can then master a given form and make it habitual. Uniformity in make-up has some real value also from the standpoint of its effect upon the reader. The person who receives a series of similarly formed letters from the same house will doubtless be impressed by the consistency and reliability which such a repetition suggests. This implies, of course, that the first impression is a favorable one and worthy of being emphasized.

A number of leading companies have adopted standard forms for their correspondence. Copies of these forms are provided for everyone who has anything to do with the letters sent out by the house. Often these forms are ac-

accompanied by instructions regarding their use, and in some instances forms and instructions are printed together in booklets. The following letters show typical standard forms which have been adopted by some nationally known companies. These letters are reproduced here by special permission.

December 18, 1921

Home and District Offices
The American Rolling Mill Co.
Middletown, Ohio, and Everywhere

Attention of Correspondents

Gentlemen:

ARMCO correspondence should be distinctive in its appearance—it should be correct, neat, attractive, economical. Rather than have a mixture of many styles—one today, but another tomorrow—we should be consistent by following an ALL ARMCO arrangement.

Study the arrangement of this form: the location of the date approximately in line with the right-hand margin, and half-way between the letterhead and the inside address; the three-line inside address; necessary punctuation; the emphatic location of Attention, which requires no underscoring; the convenient and attractive block paragraph; the type signature.

It goes without saying that the best letters are those that do not have oddities of display. Good letters have an unobtrusive display that induces the reader to read, rather than to observe the make-up.

Yours very truly

THE AMERICAN ROLLING MILL CO.

Correspondence Adviser

Sherman Perry
HSP

Hayes Wheel Company,
Jackson, Michigan.

Attention of Mr. D. D. Davis.

Gentlemen:

Subject: Model 18 Wheels.

As we told you over the 'phone, there are due us 594 Model 18 front wheels and 494 Model 18 rear wheels.

This balance does not include any shipments due on repair wheels. Our records on repair wheels are kept independently of records on new wheels.

The last shipments on record are 86 front wheels and 108 rear wheels, which we received March 17. The shipments received previous to these were 375 front wheels and 199 rear wheels. We are giving you the dates on these receipts, so you can check up your records.

There are no shipments on the road that we know of, but if any have been made of which we have not been notified, please deduct them from the balances we have given you.

Our order (No. 71416) for 280 rear wheels is not included in the balance named. This order is an increase on the balance of rear wheels due us. Please make your records accord with ours as we have furnished you metal parts on this basis.

Very truly yours,

CHALMERS MOTOR COMPANY.

EHH—S
Dictated by—

Purchasing Agent.

Chicago, May 17, 1922.

Howard Ensley & Co.,
St. Louis, Missouri.

SPECIAL FITTINGS

Gentlemen:

In answer to your letter of the 15th, we can supply you with special flanged fittings made in accordance with your drawing No. 462, at the following net prices, f. o. b. Chicago:

50—10 x 7 x 3 Tees\$15.00 each

25—3" 97° Ells 12.00 "

Terms: Net cash; thirty days.

Should you favor us with the order, we are in a position to give you prompt service.

Yours truly,

CRANE CO.

By.....

EW—C

Smith Manufacturing Company,
Peoria,
Illinois.

Attention C.A.R.

Gentlemen:

In reply to your letter of the 4th inst., we quote
for immediate shipment from our warehouse stock:

10 Plates $\frac{1}{4}$ x 30 x 96"
Tank Steel \$1.75 per 100 lbs.

100 Bars $1\frac{1}{2}$ " Rd. x 16 ft.
Mild Steel \$1.65 per 100 lbs.

Terms net cash, 30 days or $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1%—10 days.

We solicit your order and are confident our
service will please you.

Yours very truly,

JOSEPH T. RYERSON & SON

GGM—OF.

Asst. Manager Sales

Wilson & Co.,
41st Street and Ashland Avenue,
Chicago, Illinois.

ATTENTION ALL DEPARTMENTS

Gentlemen:

It is our desire that all correspondence leaving this office and the offices of our other plants be uniform in arrangement. To accomplish this we have asked all stenographers to follow the outline of this letter, and the general instructions which follow:

Begin addressing the person or company written to seven spaces below date. The address will require three or four lines, always three. If no street address is known, write the name of the town on the second line of address, and the name of the state on the third line.

Do not indent the first line of paragraphs. Single space all letters; double space between paragraphs.

The length of the letter will govern the width of the margins. The shorter the letter the wider the margins should be. The margin on the right should at all times, as nearly as possible, equal the margin on the left.

Unless the closing for the letter is otherwise dictated, use "Yours very truly," starting at 40 on the spacing bar. Sign "WILSON & CO." two spaces below, with the "W" directly below the "Y" in "Yours." Leave sufficient space for the signature (commonly three or four spaces), followed by the title of the writer or the name of the department, with the first letter in line with the "W" of "WILSON."

Yours very truly,

WILSON & CO.

RBN-MC

Correspondence Supervisor,

Mr. S. Agent,
Blankville, Ind.

Dear Mr. Agent:

In answer to your letter of November 6, the Blank Mercantile Agency soon will send us a late and detailed statement on Mr. Blank, Blank Street, of your city.

We shall pass this report on to you as soon as we receive it and tell you what action to take. You may feel assured that everything will be done to help you collect this account.

Yours very truly,

SR:GR

TREASURER.

26. The Six-part Letter

The present-day form of the business letter has been evolved during a long period of time. Many patterns have been tried and discarded; those that have survived have been modified from time to time. The letter form which we have to-day is composed of parts which have survived because they have been thoroughly tested and have proved their value. As long as man continues to progress he will continue to perfect his mechanical forms. The business letter as we have it now will doubtless be changed somewhat in the future, although it seems now as if any improvement in its mechanical make-up would be difficult to suggest. For the present we are seeking chiefly improvement in the content of the letter. The mechanical form is well-nigh universally accepted. This generally accepted form consists of six parts: the heading, the introductory address, the salutation, the body, the complimentary close, and the signature. We shall consider each of these parts in turn.

27. The Heading

The first part of the letter is called the heading. It is usually placed in the upper right-hand corner of the page. A few correspondents place the heading in the middle of the page, but this practice is not preferred by most writers. The heading consists of the writer's mail address and the date of writing. Addresses vary considerably, but this rule will be found applicable in every case: Give enough information in your heading to insure that a reply directed to that address will reach you. This will always include the name of the city and state. Usually it will include also either a street address or a post-office address. Occasionally it may include another item, such as a room number and the name of a building. Whatever items are included, they should be arranged in logical order from the most specific to the most inclusive. This means that the series of items should be concluded with the name of the state in all letters except those addressed to foreign countries.

In such letters the name of the writer's country may be added to the other items in the heading. In every case the address in the heading should be the one to which you want a reply to be directed. If for any reason you want a reply directed to an address other than the one given in the heading, you should be sure to request this in the body of the letter or in a postscript. Otherwise the proper assumption of the one who receives your letter is that your heading indicates the place to which he should send his reply.

The second part of the heading is the date of writing. All of the other items in the heading may be included in the letter-head, but the date must always be written. In careful correspondence the date is written completely; printed parts to be filled in are hardly justified by economy and are prohibited by good taste. American usage has established the order month, day, and year, although this is not a strictly logical arrangement. The name of the month should be spelled out. It should never be represented by a figure, and preferably should not be abbreviated. The day of the month should never be followed by any such letters as st, nd, rd, th, when the year is given in the same connection, as it always is in a complete heading. In other places, where the year is not given—as, for example, “May 21st” or “the 21st”—it is proper to use these ordinal endings, although business usage is tending more and more to drop them. If you do use these endings, remember that they are not abbreviations and that there is no reason for following them with periods.

On stationery with a letter-head, you have merely to supply the date. This should be placed just below the letter-head and to the right of the middle of the page. It should occupy only one line. On other stationery you must usually divide the heading into two or more lines. For this purpose observe that the three logical parts of the heading are first, the house number and street name or number, second, the city and state, and third, the date. When all of these items are to be included, the three-line heading is the most logical and results in the best appear-

ance. If there is no street address or post-office number, the two-line heading is the logical one to use. In some cases the words and numbers used may be so short that all of the items can be included in a one-line heading. Type-written headings often occupy only one line.

The heading should be properly punctuated. And what is the proper punctuation? There is at present some tendency toward the use of "open punctuation"—that is, toward omitting punctuation at the ends of lines. There is doubtless something to be said for this omission from the standpoint of speed and economy. But most writers oppose open punctuation on the ground that the omission of punctuation marks suggests hasty and slovenly writing, and creates an impression of incompleteness. This is another case in which one must take his stand on the side of an old established form or on the side of a new innovation. If you favor the older form, you will put a comma at the end of each line and a period at the end of the heading. Whether you use end punctuation or not, you must always use a comma between the name of the city and the name of the state, and another comma between the day of the month and the year. Even those most in favor of open punctuation regard these marks as essential to clearness of meaning.

In writing headings, bear in mind this general principle: The heading should contain information sufficient for directing a reply, and this information should be so arranged, spaced, and punctuated as to be easily read, and to present a balanced and pleasing appearance. Study the application of this principle in the headings of letters that you have received.

28. The Introductory Address

The introductory address—or inside address, as it is sometimes called—consists of the name and mail address of the person or company to whom a letter is sent. The name of a company should be written exactly as it is written by the company itself. Some incorporated names include the article *the*—as, for example, "The National Cash Reg-

ister Company" and "The National City Company." Others omit the article—as, for example, "Peters Trust Company" and "Chalmers Motor Company." The official forms of a few incorporated names contain abbreviations—as, for example, "Crane Co." and "U. S. Grain Growers, Inc." Abbreviations should not be used in the address unless they are part of the official name. All names should likewise be punctuated according to the form used by the persons or companies themselves. Take especial pains to spell names correctly, for everyone hates to see his name misspelled. Do not consider it your business to revise a name, no matter how illogical or disagreeable it may be.

The introductory address can be used to secure the personal touch which is desired in modern business letters. Some title should always precede the name of an individual in the address. If the person is rightfully entitled to be addressed as "Reverend," "Doctor," "Professor," or "Honorable," be sure to place the proper title before his name. Business usage sanctions the abbreviation of these titles to "Rev.," "Dr.," "Prof.," and "Hon." when they are used in conjunction with a proper name. But a greater degree of formality is secured by writing out the full form of the title. Whether they are abbreviated or spelled out in full, these titles should always be capitalized when used as part of an address. If the person addressed has no special title, or if you do not know his title, you are always safe in using one of the accepted forms "Mr.," "Mrs.," or "Miss." The titles "Mr." and "Mrs." are abbreviations and should always be written as such. "Miss" is not an abbreviation and hence should not be followed by a period.

When a firm name is made up of the names of individuals it is correct to prefix the title "Messrs.," which is an abbreviation of the French word *Messieurs*, meaning *Gentlemen*. For example, a company known as Miller and Paine may be addressed as "Messrs. Miller and Paine." The present tendency is away from this form and toward the more informal "Miller and Paine." *Messrs.* should never be used with an impersonal company name. In those

exceptional cases in which the name of an individual constitutes also a firm name no prefix should be used. Examples are "John Wanamaker, Philadelphia" and "James Butler, Inc."

It is becoming more and more customary in business correspondence to indicate the position of the person addressed. Words indicating position, such as "President," "Superintendent," "General Manager," "Advertising Manager," "Correspondence Supervisor," are placed after the name of the person and are not usually abbreviated. Such addresses should include not only the name of the individual but also the name of the company in which he holds the designated position.

Mr. A. B. Blank, Superintendent,
Crowell Manufacturing Company,
Columbus, Ohio.

The introductory address contains, besides the name and proper title, the exact mail address of the person or company to whom the letter is sent. You should always include the name of the city and of the state and preferably precede these names by a more specific item, such as a street address or a post-office box number. Sometimes it is advisable to include also the name of a county. Items of geographical information should always be placed in order from most specific to most inclusive. If you are replying to a letter in which the heading has been correctly written, you will do best to reproduce in your introductory address the data contained in that heading. The general principle is that the introductory address should contain enough information to get the letter to its destination. The argument that this completeness is necessary because the envelope may be destroyed seems rather far-fetched, but there are other and sufficient reasons apart from this one. The envelope may be addressed by some person other than the one who wrote the letter. Even if it is written by the same person, the envelope address can be taken more conveniently from the introductory address than from the original letter or from some other source. When the window

envelope is used and the same writing serves for both inside and outside address it is, of course, essential that this address be sufficiently complete to insure that the letter will be delivered to its proper destination. It is manifestly unfair, as well as unwise, to shift to the mailman the burden of supplying the minor details of an address. The United States Post Office Department classifies as unmailable all matter illegibly, incorrectly, or insufficiently addressed.

The introductory address should be arranged according to the amount of material which it contains. There should be at least two lines, the first for the title and name, and the second for the address. If the address contains several items, these may be divided logically and carried to a third line or even to a fourth line, if this is necessary. Lines in the introductory address should not extend beyond the middle of the page. The first line should begin on the left-hand margin of the letter. If you are using the older form, indent each succeeding line uniformly five or ten spaces. If you are using the block form, begin all of the lines on the left-hand margin. Place a comma at the end of each line and a period at the end of the address as a whole. Commas should also be used between the different items within lines, as between the name of a person and the word designating his position, between street address and city, and between city and state.

Study the introductory addresses in the letters that are reproduced in this book.

29. The Salutation

The salutation or greeting of the business letter is a mark of courtesy which takes the place of the handshake and the "How do you do?" of a personal meeting. *Gentlemen* is the universally adopted form of salutation for addressing a company, regardless of the relations existing between the writer and the addressee. The word *Gentlemen* is used in addressing a company whether the company name consists of personal names, such as "Harper and Brothers" or is impersonal, such as "The General Electric

Company.” The form of greeting most commonly used in addressing an individual is *Dear Sir*. This form represents a medium degree of formality. The formality may be increased by prefixing the word *My* or it may be decreased by substituting for *Sir* the name of the person addressed. The accepted forms of business salutation for an individual man, arranged in order from the most formal to the least formal, are as follows: *Sir*, *My dear Sir*, *Dear Sir*, *My dear Mr. Blank*, *Dear Mr. Blank*, *My dear Blank*, *Dear Blank*, *My dear Fred*, *Dear Fred*. Which of these forms is most appropriate in any given case is determined by the degree of intimacy existing between the writer and the person addressed. In salutations containing a proper name other titles may be used, as for example, *My dear Doctor Blank*, *Dear Professor Blank*. But titles should not be used as substitutes for names in salutations.

In addressing a firm composed of women the proper salutation is *Mesdames*. We have no acceptable English word for this purpose. *Ladies* is occasionally used but has never found much favor. The common salutation in addressing an individual woman is *Dear Madam*, which corresponds to *Dear Sir* in carrying a medium degree of formality. This formality may be increased by prefixing the word *My* or it may be decreased by using the proper name instead of the word *Madam*. The series from most formal to least formal is as follows: *Madam*, *My dear Madam*, *Dear Madam*, *My dear Mrs. Blank*, *Dear Mrs. Blank*. In the last two *Miss* may be substituted for *Mrs.* Good use has never sanctioned “*Dear Friend*” as a salutation even in letters of friendship, and the use of this form in a business letter is indicative of meager information if not of poor taste.

The salutation begins on the left-hand margin. It is properly followed by a colon in all business letters. The dash following the colon is no longer found in the best letters. The comma is the proper mark of punctuation after the salutation in letters of friendship. If the degree of intimacy is great and the salutation a very informal one, the comma may be permissible in a business letter.

But this use is not recommended. The first word of the salutation is always capitalized. Proper names and titles showing honor or position are capitalized. The word *dear* is capitalized only when it is used as the first word in the salutation.

30. The Body of the Letter

The letter proper, usually called the body of the letter, should receive the writer's principal attention. The other parts of the letter are largely mechanical forms which can be mastered and made habitual. The body of the letter, on the other hand, contains the real message and constitutes the real reason for sending the letter. This part has, of course, its proper external form. This form has been discussed in preceding sections on margins, spacing, and indentation. To these considerations might be added another regarding the conclusion of the letter proper. The last sentence of this part should be a good and complete one which will bring the message to a definite close. Do not attempt to run the body of your letter into the complimentary close by substituting a participial clause such as "Hoping to hear from you soon" for a complete sentence. The device of concluding the letter with such a participial construction ending in "I remain" or "I am" was once regarded as proper but it has no sanction whatever in present-day usage.

The main consideration in the body of the letter is the content, the message, the idea which the writer is trying to convey. This idea varies with the special type of letter. The most commonly used types of business letters are discussed and illustrated in later chapters of this book.

31. The Complimentary Close

The complimentary close or conclusion of a business letter serves the same purpose as the "good day" which marks the separation of individuals after a personal meeting. Like the salutation, it is a sign of courtesy which people in general have seen fit to adopt and which no one can afford to omit from his letters. The most commonly

used form of complimentary close is *Yours truly*, which indicates a medium degree of formality. *Truly yours* is a variant occasionally used. The formality can be increased somewhat by prefixing the word *very*, as *Very truly yours*. This can be varied so as to read *Yours very truly*. In cases demanding greater formality use *respectfully* instead of *truly*. When you desire to secure a more personal tone you may use *sincerely* in place of *truly* in any of the combinations indicated above. Business usage has recently drawn upon the familiar letter for other terms to use in this connection. *Cordially* and *faithfully* are sometimes used to intensify the personal tone and relation. Eccentric closes such as "Yours for bigger profits" are best avoided in general correspondence. The whole matter of selecting a complimentary close is one of adaptation. The close should be suited to the degree of intimacy which is justifiable and desirable in a particular instance. In every case the close should be entirely consistent with the salutation. Do not use a highly formal salutation like *My dear Sir* and then close with a very personal phrase such as *Faithfully yours*. Maintain one tone consistently throughout each letter.

The following table contains the most frequently used complimentary closes arranged in order from the most formal to the most personal:

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Very respectfully yours | 7. Truly yours |
| 2. Yours very respectfully | 8. Yours truly |
| 3. Respectfully yours | 9. Very sincerely yours |
| 4. Yours respectfully | 10. Yours very sincerely |
| 5. Very truly yours | 11. Sincerely yours |
| 6. Yours very truly | 12. Yours sincerely |

The complimentary close should be written to the right of an imaginary line drawn perpendicularly through the middle of the letter and should be at least two spaces from the body. If the letter as a whole is well centered on the page, the complimentary close will begin at the middle of the page. Only the first word is capitalized, no matter which form is used. The close is properly followed by a comma.

If you have used open punctuation in the heading and salutation, you should, of course, be consistent and omit the comma after the complimentary close.

32. The Signature

The signature is an essential part of the business letter. Many a letter would be entirely worthless without this indication of responsibility for its contents. To avoid any violation of good usage as well as any possibility of misunderstanding or legal difficulty, every correspondent should study carefully the proper form of the signature. The signature is understood in legal and business usage to consist of the written name of the person or persons upon whom rests the responsibility for preceding statements. According to present standard usage this name is written with a pen. The courts have held, however, that a typewritten name may also constitute a legal signature. In everyday business letters the signature usually consists of two parts, the name of the company and the name of the individual representative or employee. The name of the company is commonly typewritten and the name of the individual is written with the pen.

In any signature consisting of two or more parts the order of the parts is highly important. In the first place, this order should be consistent with the usage in the body of the letter. If the letter is written in the first person, the individual's signature should logically precede the company's signature. If, on the other hand, the plural form has been used throughout the body of the letter, the signature of the company will naturally precede. Furthermore, the courts have held that the name which occurs first in such a signature indicates the legally responsible party. Thus it follows that when you are writing letters for a company you should always place the company's name first. It is customary to place this name just below the complimentary close and separated from it by at least two spaces. Immediately below the company's name place your own individual signature written as legibly as possible. This signature should include some indication of

your position if you have an official title with the company and are writing in that capacity. The uncapitalized word *by* may be prefixed to your name. But this word is unnecessary and is now usually omitted, especially when some other word such as *President*, *Secretary*, or *Cashier* is given to indicate the signer's position. The prefix *per* should not be used for this purpose. The word *signed* is wholly unnecessary and is ordinarily omitted in the interest of good taste as well as of economy. Never prefix a title to your name in the signature. To sign yourself "Mr. A. Blank" is decidedly bad form. Abbreviations representing degrees are sometimes permissible after the name but should not be used except for some special reason. A woman whose name is not self-explanatory may prefix *Miss* or *Mrs.* in parentheses, thus "(Mrs.) Margaret Blank." A person whose handwriting is unusually illegible may type his name either just above or just below his pen-written signature. This practice is becoming more common even among those whose penmanship would be clear without it.

33. Some Miscellaneous Current Usages

The six parts which we have discussed are found in every modern business letter. In the practice of different correspondents these parts vary somewhat in minor details but they are similar in all essentials of purpose and of content. Besides these six universally used parts there are certain other forms which are becoming fixed in current practice.

Some firms index their letters by number and ask that the number of a letter be referred to in the reply. This request may be printed as a part of the letter-head and may read "In replying please refer to No.—" or simply "Please mention No.—" When printed, this request may be placed either at the right-hand side or the left-hand side of the letter-head. The same request together with the number, or the number alone, may be typewritten. In this case it usually occupies a place just below the date line. Special requests are sometimes made in this place, such as "Please refer to contracts," "Please refer to Mr. Blank,"

“Please address reply to the Chicago office,” or “Please address all correspondence to the house.”

Oftentimes a letter which is addressed and sent to a company is designed to reach a certain individual. In such cases a special address, usually consisting of the words “Attention of Mr. A. B. Blank,” is added to the introductory address. This special address is usually placed between the introductory address and the salutation and is spaced as a special item. It is more conspicuous if centered on the page but the difficulty of centering it leads many correspondents to begin it on the left-hand margin. The inclusion of this special address should never be allowed to interfere with the proper salutation, which is *Gentlemen* in any letter addressed to a company. The two most common forms of special address are shown here:

The Cash and Carry Company,
710 South Tenth Street,
Denver, Colorado.
Attention of Mr. Johnson.

Gentlemen:

The Best Manufacturing Company,
640 North Fortieth Street,
Chicago, Illinois.
Attention of Mr. A. B. Porter.

Gentlemen:

The business letter form has been somewhat affected by the form of military correspondence. A few firms have adopted the “From, to, subject” form of military communications. Many others have adopted only the last of these items. For example, Crane Company requires a general subject head to be placed between the address and first paragraph in every letter, long or short. This head must be in capital letters, underscored once, and centered on the page.

Letters often constitute important records and for this reason they are made to include such data as will aid in

checking up any questions which may arise long after the date of writing. It is a general practice to type in the lower left-hand corner, flush with the margin and a space or two below the last line of the signature, the initials of the dictator and of the stenographer. These items usually occur in one or the other of these forms: MHW/VD, MHW-VD, MHW*VD, MHW:VD. In some cases the stenographer has a number and uses this in place of initials, as for example, MHW/6. The practice of typing the name of the dictator instead of merely his initials is growing in favor, perhaps on account of the illegibility of many signatures. The form then may be A.B.Blank/VD or A.B.Blank/6.

When circulars, documents, checks, samples, or any materials other than the letter itself are enclosed in the same envelope it is customary to indicate this inclusion by typing the abbreviation *Enc.* or *Encl.* just below the initials of the dictator and the stenographer. This abbreviation is begun flush with the left-hand margin. If more than one enclosure is made, the number should be indicated, as for example, *3 encls.*

CHAPTER IV

SOME EVERYDAY LETTERS

34. The Letter of Inquiry

Everyone, whether he is in business or not, has frequent occasion to write letters asking for information. The variety of such letters is almost unlimited. They are as various in subject-matter as human knowledge and interests, and they are as diverse in methods of expression as are the relations between man and man. Any classification of such letters or any statement of the principles which govern them must necessarily be only approximate. An examination of many letters of inquiry reveals, however, that there are certain recurring situations and that there are certain recognized usages common to these situations. Questions such as, "Do you have any material on this subject?" and "Will you please send me some information on this subject?" constitute a type which we may call the general letter of inquiry. Such a letter, although sometimes justified by the circumstances, should as a rule be avoided. In our discussion "the letter of inquiry" will be understood to mean the letter of specific inquiry, the letter which requests certain definite information and shows clearly that the writer knows what he wants.

Letters of specific inquiry may be classified as to their origin. The request for information may have been aroused by an advertisement or by a previous letter from the house. In such a case the letter of inquiry is in reality a reply stating that the writer will accept the information which has been offered to him. In such a letter clear reference should be made to the previous offer, both as to its nature

and its date. The following letter is an example of the type which makes a request for information that has already been volunteered:

The Best Bond Company,
1826 State Street, Chicago, Ill.

Gentlemen:

Please send me a copy of your free booklet, Number 186, called "A Safe Guide to Profitable Investments," as advertised in *System* for December, 1921.

I am interested in the subject of safe investments and shall be glad to receive any other material on this subject which you have available for free distribution.

Yours truly,

The true letter of inquiry is the one containing specific requests which have originated with the writer. Such requests range all the way from routine queries concerning the current price or the rate of discount on some commodity to special inquiries necessitating some thought and perhaps some investigation by the recipient of the letter. Whatever the subject about which you are requesting information, make your inquiry as concise, as clear, and as courteous as possible. Brevity is a virtue in a letter of this type, but enough explanation should be given to insure that the reader will understand clearly what is wanted. It is advisable to indicate the purpose of the letter at the very outset. To compel a busy man to read through your letter in order to find out what it is about is to create an unfavorable impression and to decrease your chances of getting what you want. In dealing with a complicated subject you will not be able to condense your whole inquiry into the first sentence. But you can at least introduce the subject in this sentence and indicate the nature of the specific questions which you are going to ask. You can say, for example, "The advertisements which you have been getting out recently have interested me in your new plan of selling gasoline and have led me to wonder whether

or not you have a representative in this district." Such an introductory sentence may then be followed by specific questions. If you have several questions, you are permitted, in the interest of clearness, to paragraph these separately. Numbering the questions will enable the one addressed to answer more easily and more briefly.

In order to insure the reader of the genuineness of your interest and thus to get his careful attention you may include some explanation as to who you are or why you want this information. Such explanatory matter should be very brief and entirely relevant. It can often be included in the first sentence of the letter, as for example, "As Secretary of the Blank Commercial Club I have been requested to write you about your plans for making a new city park." In some instances a separate paragraph of such explanatory matter may be justifiable, but it should come after you have introduced your subject and have stated your purpose so that the reader will see the bearing of your explanation upon the request which you are making.

After you have outlined clearly the information which you want, it is good form to express your appreciation of the answer which you expect. This can be done in a sentence such as the following: "I shall appreciate greatly your assistance in this matter." Never use the worn-out formula "Thanking you in advance." Do not irritate your reader by the use of overpolite phrases. Neither is it wise to assume an apologetic attitude or to make negative suggestions such as, "I hope this won't trouble you too much," or "I know this is asking a great deal." Make sure in advance of writing that your request is legitimate and necessary. Construct your letter with the reader's ease and economy in view. Thank him for his assistance. And then stop. If you are in a position to reciprocate his favor you may express in a sentence your willingness to do so, but this is ordinarily taken for granted by firms and by individuals whose ideal is service. If your request is outside of regular business routine and is in the nature of asking a special favor, it is proper to include a stamped and self-addressed envelope for reply.

35. The Reply to an Inquiry

Every wide-awake business man not only welcomes inquiries but encourages them. Through letters of inquiry many new fields of service and many new sources of profit are opened up. A considerate reply to a letter of inquiry may be the means of adding a permanent customer and it will certainly be influential in the building of good will, which is regarded as a highly valuable asset in modern business. Replies to inquiries should be prompt, complete, clear, and courteous. The inquirer may be delaying some important matter while he waits for your reply. Your answer may do him little good unless he gets it promptly. Hence it is unwise to pigeonhole his letter and let it await your convenience. If you are well versed in the duties of your position you will be able to reply easily and at once to nearly all inquiries that come to you. When you find it necessary to look up special information before replying, make it a point to do your investigating as soon as possible.

When you reply to an inquiry, do the job thoroughly. Answer the particular questions that are asked, answer all of them, and answer them fully. In order to do this you must, of course, understand the questions clearly. And this is not always easy. Untrained persons often word their requests in a very ambiguous manner and often run several questions together in a confusing way. A letter of this kind must be analyzed and outlined before it can be answered. It is well to number the questions asked and then to answer them in the order in which they occur. If the writer has been considerate enough to number his questions, your best plan in replying is to follow his outline. Perhaps you could make a better one, but he will probably understand you more easily and more clearly if you follow his.

Whatever the nature of the information which your letter is to convey, or whatever the plan upon which it is built, let it be courteous in tone. Do not include anything which will even remotely suggest that you feel im-

posed upon by the inquiry or that you consider the writer under obligations to you. Avoid especially any implication that he is a fool for asking such questions. Try rather to make him feel that inquiries like his are welcomed and that replying to such inquiries constitutes one part of your reliable service. Emphasis upon this point is especially important in replying to all such inquiries as may lead to further relations apt to be mutually profitable. In such cases the reply to an inquiry is usually the introduction to a series of sales letters. A little sales material may be included in the reply itself if it is relevant to the question asked. But it is better not to overload the first letter with sales material. The following is an example of a letter which answers questions clearly and courteously and anticipates further friendly relations:

Mr. Alex Meyers,
256 Lake Street,
Omaha, Nebraska.

Dear Sir:

In compliance with your request of January 2nd, we are sending you under separate cover a copy of our booklet "A Safe Guide to Profitable Investments," which describes the fundamental principles of a safe First Mortgage Real Estate Bond Investment. Their application to our securities is described in the booklet "Guaranteed Security," which we are also sending you.

As you probably know, good First Mortgage Real Estate Bonds are one of the safest and most highly protected forms of investment. You will no doubt be particularly inclined toward them at this time, because of the marked stability they have always shown, regardless of conditions. This has proved true in war-time periods and in periods of financial depression. They are non-speculative and, therefore, are not subject to fluctuation.

We believe the booklets and circulars which we are sending will give you all of the information necessary in forming your opinion and deciding as to whether or not you wish to invest some of your money in these bonds. They should prove of concrete assistance in making your selection.

If you desire any further information regarding particular issues or regarding our plan of sale, we shall be glad to answer your questions.

Yours truly,

Sometimes it will be necessary for you to reply to an inquiry without giving the information asked for. The inquiry may be so obscure as to make it impossible for you to give any information until you know more definitely what is wanted. Or you may be unable to secure the desired information from any available sources. The number of such cases should, of course, be reduced to a minimum. When they do occur, write a courteous letter, stating the facts briefly but clearly, emphasizing the point that this is the exception and not the general rule in your practice. Note how such a situation is handled in the following letter:

McGeer Automobile Co.,
237 Holben Street,
Peoria, Illinois.

Gentlemen:

In reply to your inquiry of January 5th, regarding Wolfeld Welding Outfits, we are sorry to inform you that we do not know who makes this particular outfit. We find no such brand listed in the trade books or catalogs. We are sure, however, that we can satisfy your needs with some other welding outfit, if you wish. For your convenience we are sending under separate cover our catalog No. 142, which will give you some idea of our very complete and reasonably priced stock of welding outfits, and in which we believe you will be interested.

If you will please tell us a little more definitely of your exact requirements, especially of the attachments you will want, we shall be able to give you a fair and intelligent quotation.

Our service is at your disposal and we shall be very glad to answer any further inquiries you may wish to make.

Very truly yours,

It may be necessary upon occasion to refuse wholly or partially the information requested even though you understand what is wanted and have at hand the materials for a reply. The handling of this situation requires the greatest tact and the highest degree of skill. It is usually advisable to cite the reasons for refusing the request and to indicate clearly to your reader that your action in so doing is in

harmony with the general policy of the firm in such cases and is not in any sense a discrimination against him. It is courteous to express regret over the necessity of refusing such requests, but it is unwise to indulge in long apologies. Let the whole tone of your letter show that your refusal is altogether a matter of principle and is not at all a matter of personalities. The following is a good example of a letter which explains carefully the reasons for refusing such a request:

Mr. Richard Campbell,
321 Walker Street,
Columbus, Ohio.

Dear Sir:

I have received your letter of January 30th, but because we serve banks personally, giving to each an individualized service based upon conditions after we have received information from them, I am unable to submit a proposal of our service until I know more of the use which you have for it.

If you are connected with a bank, or are thinking of becoming connected with a bank, and desire us to submit a proposal for handling the advertising of the institution, please give us a little more definite information. We serve but one bank in a town, and for that reason must know the name of the town, for we are serving over a hundred banks in Ohio. We should also like to know something of the size of the bank, the amount it expects to expend for advertising, what its position in regard to newspapers may be, where it obtains its business, and the kind of territory in which it is located.

If you will give me this information and suggestions as to your position in the matter, I shall be glad to submit a proposal.

Very truly yours,

36. The Letter Ordering Goods

Wholesale houses and mail-order houses generally supply their customers with order blanks which do away with the necessity of writing regular letters for the purpose of ordering goods. Such blanks usually contain labelled spaces in which the customer is asked to write specific details of information concerning the goods desired. An

additional space in which the customer may supply any special information which he deems necessary is often provided. Whether an order is sent by means of a form provided for the purpose or by means of a regular letter, there are certain data which should be included. In a letter ordering goods be sure to give complete and detailed specification of the goods desired, including quantity, exact name, quality, description as to style, size, color, and so forth, number or date of catalog or price list from which the goods are ordered, and price. The separate items should be arranged in tabular form, each one on a single line whenever this is possible. It is customary to capitalize the names of articles and to use figures for representing all numbers. It is also customary to calculate the price of each item, when this is known, and to indicate the total price of all the items.

The manner, date, and destination of shipment should be specifically stated. If the customer fails to specify the manner of shipment, the shipper has free choice in this matter. The usual assumption is that goods are wanted at once, that is, with reasonable promptness. If there is more than usual urgency, or if the goods are being ordered for future delivery, the shipping date should be especially emphasized. The assumption is, likewise, that the place of writing is the destination to which the goods are to be sent. If you want the goods sent to an address different from that in the heading of your order, emphasize this fact.

Some reference to payment should be made. If you include payment with the order, send it in a form which will be both safe and acceptable. Never send currency. Do not send personal checks to people with whom you have had no previous dealings. Always make a reference within the letter to the enclosed payment, stating the exact amount and the form. At the end of the letter indicate the enclosure by the abbreviation *enc.* If you have made any deduction for discount, for allowance on a previous order, or for any other reason, be sure to state this clearly. If you are a regular customer and have a standing arrangement

with the house addressed you may simply say, "Charge to our account." Even this may be taken for granted after you have proved yourself to be a permanent and reliable customer. The following is an example of a complete letter ordering goods:

General Hardware Company,
1621 South Sixth Street,
St. Louis, Missouri.

Gentlemen:

Please send the following goods to our shop at 486 South Street, by C. B. and Q. freight, and charge to our account:

1 dozen 2" x 4" x 18', White Oak, No. 1, @	
15c.	\$21.60
1 dozen 2" x 4" x 12', White Oak, No. 1, @	
13c.	12.48
10 quarts Auto Paint, red, @ 85c.	8.50
1 dozen Best Hayrack Clamp, 16 inch, @	
\$1.40	16.80
100 lbs., 1/2" x 16', Tank Band Steel, Grade	
A, @ 9c.	9.00
	<hr/>
	\$68.38

Very truly yours,

37. The Letter of Acknowledgment

It is highly important both to the customer and to the house that an order be promptly acknowledged. The letter of acknowledgment informs the customer that his order has been received and assures him that he can rely upon receiving the goods. It constitutes an acceptance of the offer made in the order and binds both parties in a contractual relation. An acknowledgment usually contains an expression of appreciation for the order, an exact reference to the order by date and number, a promise of shipment by a specified date and route, and some sales material looking toward future orders.

Many acknowledgments are made by means of form letters and some are made by post cards. Such forms can be made to carry the essential facts about the order and

its shipment, but they miss the chief opportunity of the occasion, especially in the acknowledgment of a first order. A good letter of acknowledgment should emphasize the value of the articles ordered, should express assurance that these articles will give good service, and should show willingness to stand behind the articles with a guarantee of satisfaction. The best advertisement in the world, it has been said, is a satisfied customer. The writer of acknowledgments should utilize his opportunity to assist in producing satisfaction. The following is an example of a letter which uses its opportunity:

Mr. John Nelson,
St. Paul, Nebraska.

Dear Sir:

Please accept our thanks for your good order of December 1st for 100 pounds of Christmas candy. The order is receiving our careful attention and the candy will be ready for shipment by American Express on December 6th. You should receive it by the 10th and should have adequate time to display it for Christmas trade.

You will have no difficulty of disposing of these "Delicious Sweets." They are made of the best materials procurable. They are made in a perfectly clean and sanitary factory. They are priced to sell to the average buyer, whose interest is in the candy rather than in the box.

We have no hesitancy in guaranteeing satisfaction on "Delicious Sweets." Thousands of satisfied customers have assured us that there is no better candy at any price. We feel sure that you will come to the same conclusion and that we shall have another order from you before long.

Very truly yours,

38. The "Letter of Credit"

The commercial and legal instrument technically known as the "Letter of Credit" is a combination of an introduction and an indorsement. It may be directed by one banker to another, authorizing the person named to draw money up to a specified amount. Or it may be from a bank or other business house to a merchant, authorizing the person

named to obtain goods within certain limits. In any case, the person or firm issuing the letter places its credit at the disposal of another person or firm and assumes legal obligation to make that credit good. When this letter is made to serve also as a letter of introduction it is given to the person to whom credit is being extended. A duplicate copy is usually sent by mail to the addressee. Sometimes this copy is accompanied by some details of identification, such as a brief description of the person and a copy of his signature. The following is an example of a letter of credit:

Commercial State Bank,
Omaha, Nebraska.

Attention of Mr. R. L. Lock.

Gentlemen:

We take pleasure in introducing to you Mr. R. T. Wyman, the bearer of this letter, who is visiting Omaha with the intention of buying a hardware stock. We have advised him to consult with you in this matter and, if necessary, to open an account with you. We hereby authorize you to honor his drafts to a total amount not exceeding five thousand dollars (\$5,000) and to charge these drafts to us.

Yours very truly,

39. The Application for Credit

Modern business is carried on very largely by means of credit. Letters dealing with the subject of credit are therefore common in everyday correspondence. Wholesalers have made a careful study of the problem of credit and have reduced the handling of the problem to a definite system based upon certain fundamental principles. Large retail stores are developing a similar system, and doubtless the time will come when all business establishments both large and small will have a fairly uniform procedure for handling matters of credit.

When you order goods for the first time without making any provision for payment, you are virtually requesting credit from the firm addressed. If your standing is already

well known, or if information concerning it is readily accessible from the regular published sources, you may think it unnecessary to add any special request for credit privileges. But if the firm addressed is careful in its selection of those to whom these privileges are extended, and especially if it has a credit manager who is thorough and conscientious, you will probably be asked to make a formal application for credit, giving detailed information about the nature and conditions of your business. You can anticipate this requirement by including with your order or by sending at the same time to the credit manager a statement of these facts. Such a letter may include references to your rating by the commercial agencies, copies of current financial and property statements, and names of reliable persons to whom you are permitted to refer. It should include a definite request for specific credit privileges, which may be either those usually extended by the house or special privileges necessary to your particular business. Study the following letter as an example of a request for credit privileges:

Grant and Lee Company,
193 Michigan Avenue,
Chicago, Illinois.

Gentlemen:

We are sending you to-day an order for \$500 worth of goods with which to stock our new rug department. We realize that this is our first order with you, but we feel confident that any investigation which you may care to make will lead you to send us these goods so that we can have them for our formal New Year's Opening.

You will find that we have an A1 rating in Dun's and in Bradstreet's. If you care for further information, you may call upon The First Hardware Company or The Ready Supply Company, both of your city. We have done business with both of these firms for many years and feel sure that they will give you any information about our standing which you may desire.

We enclose a summary financial statement for 1921.

We desire credit for 90 days on this order and feel sure that you will be willing to grant it.

Very truly yours,

40. Securing Credit Information

Upon receiving a request for credit privileges the credit manager proceeds to ascertain the standing of the applicant. *Bradstreet's Weekly* defines commercial credit as "an estimate of the ability and disposition of individuals, firms, or corporations to meet business engagements." In making his estimate, the credit man probably goes first to the published reports of commercial agencies such as Dun's and Bradstreet's. The rating of the applicant in these reports is sometimes regarded as a sufficient basis upon which to grant the credit that he desires. But it is often thought advisable to draw upon other sources for additional information. Many houses have prepared forms to use in securing this information. One of these forms is sent to the applicant himself with the request that he furnish the specific information which is asked for. A personal interview may be recommended or demanded. Other questionnaires or report blanks are sent to the references cited by the applicant and to persons selected by the credit manager. Local banks are often called upon to supply such information. Although the supplying of credit information is one of the common courtesies of everyday business, the request should be made in a polite manner and should be accompanied by an expression of appreciation for the service rendered.

The following is an example of a letter sent by a credit manager to a new customer:

T. R. Corbin and Company,
St. Louis, Missouri.

Gentlemen:

Your order given our St. Louis office, January 24th, for about eight and one-half tons of building material has been referred to this department for credit approval. When sending the order in, Mr. White, our District Manager, informed us that your concern is practically new, having just been incorporated. This may account for the fact that the mercantile agencies do not list you. Probably you have not given them

recently a financial statement which would enable them to estimate your financial responsibility.

With a view to extending you every possible credit courtesy, we are attaching a blank form, such as you are undoubtedly familiar with, which we require all of our customers to fill out in order that we may list them on our credit file. We shall therefore appreciate your filling out this blank and returning it to us together with your bank references.

We realize that you want to receive the building material at the earliest possible date. Hence we suggest the following plan: If you are not in a position to make up the financial statement immediately, you may authorize shipment of this material under terms of sight draft attached to bill of lading. If this draft is paid within ten days, you may deduct two per cent discount, which is our regular rate.

If the suggestion just offered is satisfactory to you, wire us at our expense to proceed with your order and then follow, at your convenience, with the financial statement.

Very truly yours,

41. The Letter Granting Credit

Upon the basis of the information which he has secured from various sources the credit man classifies the applicant and determines what credit privileges, if any, shall be extended to him. As soon as he has adequate information upon which to base his conclusions the manager should write to the applicant informing him of his decision. Promptness is important to both parties, for matters of serious concern are perhaps being held in suspense, awaiting the decision. If credit is to be granted, the exact terms must be stated so clearly as to avoid any possibility of later misunderstanding. Special attention should be called to any difference between the terms asked for and the terms granted. The reasons for any such differences should be frankly and clearly stated. The serious nature of credit to both parties should be emphasized. A suggestion that the house which extends credit is in this way rendering an important service may be included if it is tactfully made. It is well to show an appreciation of the customer's business and to express a belief that future

relations will be mutually pleasant and profitable. The following is an example of a letter which grants the credit privileges asked for:

R. L. Graham Company,
Omaha, Nebraska.

Gentlemen:

Thank you for your letter and order of January 20th, which included your 1921 financial statement. Your order for merchandise for your new rug department will be sent forward by American Express on January 26th.

We have found your statement and credit responsibility entirely satisfactory and are very glad to offer you the advantages of an open account, terms 2/15/90: net ninety days, two per cent discount for cash in fifteen days from date of invoice. Your references have led us to feel certain that our relations will be most pleasant and mutually advantageous.

We are very much interested in the opening of your rug department and hope to interest you further in our rugs. No collection of Oriental rugs in this country affords greater latitude in its range of sizes, color schemes, and fine weaves than ours. We have a collection of the famous French Aubusson and Savonneries, which have been noted for centuries for their artistic elaborateness of design. These coverings are available in many designs and color combinations suited particularly for American homes.

There are in our stock fine Scotch Axminsters in plain colors which are cut to any size and are finished ready for immediate shipment.

We have also a complete stock of moderately priced rugs of thick, durable fabric. These rugs can be secured in an almost unlimited range of design and color. They enjoy great popularity and are always self-sellers.

Please accept our wishes for the success and prosperity of your new rug department. We hope that you will let your rug problems become our problems. Let us assure you of our hearty cooperation.

Very truly yours,

42. The Letter Refusing Credit

The credit manager's investigation may lead him to the conclusion that the granting of credit is unwarranted in

a particular case. To refuse a request is much more difficult than to grant it. To refuse a request and still retain good will is one of the most difficult tasks of the letter writer. It is a task which requires a combination of qualities rarely found in one man. But it is a task which must be performed.

When credit must be refused, reasons for the refusal should be given with care and completeness. The applicant should be made to feel that the action is in accord with a general policy of the house and is in no way a personal discrimination against him. He should be shown that this policy is based upon sound principles evolved through long experience. He should be made to see that fundamentally this present action in refusing him credit is in accord with his own best interests just as much as it is in accord with the interests of the house. This explanation should be perfectly frank and should avoid any suggestion of apology.

In some cases it may be proper for the credit manager to point out certain sources of weakness in the applicant's affairs as shown by the previous investigation. If he points out such weaknesses, he should also suggest means of remedying them. He may include some information about present market conditions and future prospects and he may make some suggestions about when and how to buy. But such suggestions require especial skill if they are to be handled successfully and had better not be attempted by the beginner. The following letter refusing credit privileges combines frankness with friendliness:

Mr. L. C. Kimberlie,
Scottsbluff, Nebraska.

Dear Mr. Kimberlie:

Thank you for your letter of the 16th, enclosing financial statement for 1921. Your promptness in attending to this matter speaks well for your general business methods.

A study of the statement and the other information which you have sent us reveals the fact that your assets are relatively low. The figures themselves appear all right until we consider the mortgage on your present stock of goods. This operates

as a first lien and presents a rather unfavorable appearance to new creditors.

After a careful study of the whole situation, we have concluded that it would be contrary to our traditionally conservative policy to extend the credit which you asked for in your letter of April 1st. Can't you arrange in some way to get rid of that mortgage? As soon as you do this, we shall be in a position to consider your original proposal. We can then arrange terms to suit your needs.

Meanwhile, we stand ready to give your orders prompt attention on our regular standard terms. We shall also be glad to render you any service that we possibly can.

Very truly yours,

43. The Collection Letter—Its Double Object

The ideal way of handling the collection letter would be to avoid the necessity of writing it. But this ideal is hardly realizable in the present state of affairs. A few people are deliberately dishonest and many more are negligent and forgetful. In any business except that which is done on a strictly cash basis accounts will become overdue in spite of one's best intentions and one's best efforts. Every business man should exercise the greatest possible care in selecting those persons to whom credit privileges are to be granted and should use his best efforts in instructing these persons concerning the legitimate and proper use of these privileges. Such advance precautions will minimize the need for collection letters but will probably never do away with them altogether.

In nearly all collection letters the writer has a double purpose. He desires first of all to secure the payment of a particular account. He desires to have this payment made in full at the earliest possible moment. He wants to eliminate this particular overdue account from his records. In order to achieve this desired result he is often inclined to proceed by the most direct route and to waste no words. But the collection writer has also another object, which at first sight seems incompatible with direct and forceful procedure. He desires a continuance of

friendly relations with the debtor and a continuance of the profits which may accrue from future business. In other words, the good collection letter writer looks toward the future as well as toward the past. How can he proceed so as to accomplish both of these purposes? This is the problem of the collection correspondent, and anyone who has tried to solve it will tell you that it is a real problem.

44. Fundamental Principles of the Collection Letter

Before attempting to write a collection letter the correspondent should have before him all essential data about the case in question. He should have a complete record of the transactions concerned, including the nature of the goods for which payment is being sought, the dates of order and of shipment, the price of each item and the total sum—in short, he should have all of the facts necessary to enable him to make an itemized statement. He should be well informed concerning the general collection policy of the firm and the exact terms under which this particular customer has been buying. Every well organized business has a general plan of collection formulated by those who are best qualified by position and experience to work out such a plan. It would be manifestly inadvisable to leave this important matter entirely to the decision of the different correspondents who are appointed to do the actual work of collecting accounts. On the other hand, it is equally inadvisable to formulate rules of such rigidity that they cannot be modified to suit the circumstances of particular cases. The first duty of the correspondent who is working under a system is to know that system thoroughly, to know how far he is required to pursue a dictated plan and when he is allowed to make departures from that plan based upon his own judgment.

It is necessary not only to have a definite policy and plan for handling collections but also to impress this fact upon the debtor. It may be well to include in your letter a brief statement of the house policy, emphasizing the fact that the reader is being treated in exactly the same manner

as is every other customer doing business with this firm. There should be no apology in asking for the payment of a past-due account. The debtor has ordered goods, has received them, has used them, but has not paid for them. Everyone who is in business knows that the prompt payment of obligations is the basis of all sound commercial enterprise, but many people need to have this fact driven home by frequent repetition. Point out to the debtor that his business, your business, everybody's business would soon crumble if his failure to meet his obligation were made the general practice. No normal person will take offense at being asked for payment on this basis and there is nothing inconsistent with courtesy in a frank statement of these fundamental facts. The firm should be prompt in sending out statements on the exact date when they are due, for actions always speak louder than words.

A single letter is often insufficient to secure the payment desired. Collection letters are, therefore, frequently formulated in series, the number to be determined by the general plan of collection as adapted to a particular case. However long the series may be, it should be built up according to a logical plan in which each letter stands as a definite unit, giving no indication that other letters may follow, and in which the series as a whole has a definite unity.

45. Some Different Classes of Debtors

Those who allow their accounts to become overdue and have to be dunned for payment may be divided roughly into three classes. There are first those who, although they have not been prompt in making payment, are nevertheless on a sound financial basis and can be relied upon to pay. Such persons may have simply overlooked the account and may be ready to remit as soon as they are reminded of their delinquency. Or they may be experiencing a temporary shortage of ready funds and may need to be granted an extension of time. In spite of their delay in remitting, persons in this class may be regarded as desirable cus-

tomers. In dealing with them the collection correspondent should bear in mind especially the second of his two objects, namely, to continue friendly relations. He should aim to collect the money at the earliest possible moment, but in doing this he should not irritate the customer or give him offense.

“When I’m through with them this time, I’m through with them for good.” This is often the reaction of a customer who receives as a first notice of his delinquency a curt and untactful dun. He knows his own financial condition to be thoroughly sound and sees no reason why he should be insulted about a small account. The collection correspondent will do well to learn the cause of the delay. He can best do this by courteously asking the customer himself for an explanation and by showing a willingness to be reasonable in considering the circumstances. When he has all the facts before him he may decide to grant an extension of time on the whole account, or he may decide to try for a partial payment and allow an extension on the remainder. Whatever action he takes in dealing with this class of debtors, the collector should have his eye on the future.

The real difficulties of collection come in dealing with those debtors who are not financially sound and who cannot be relied upon to pay. Such persons may be honest enough, but through lack of sufficient capital or ability to manage their affairs properly they are habitually delinquent in the payment of their accounts. Credit and collection managers may make some effort to assist such persons through advising them on matters of management, but they cannot undertake to build a new foundation under a tottering structure. Eventually they reach the conclusion that these customers are undesirable and had better be dropped altogether. A continuance of relations with such incapable customers will result only in further trouble and loss to the house. In these cases the collection correspondent’s eye is turned toward the past. His object is to get the money which is due, without regard to future relations. This justifies him in using direct and forceful

modes of procedure to such an extent as is found to be necessary.

The dishonest debtor is, of course, the most undesirable of all, whether he has the means of making payment or is unable as well as unwilling. When dishonesty is discovered, the best thing to do is to close the account at once and take immediate steps to compel payment. No firm can afford to do business with those who deliberately seek to escape their just obligations. Without honor other qualifications have no value.

46. The First Stage in the Collection Process: Sending Reminders

Practice in handling accounts varies somewhat with different firms, depending chiefly upon the nature of the business and upon the classification of the debtor. But in the early stages of collecting an account the practice of all houses is nearly uniform. An invoice containing the terms of sale is sent with the goods and duplicates are filed under the date when the invoice is due. Upon this date a duplicate invoice is sent to the customer. If this brings no response, the process of collection begins. Some firms wait five days and some ten and then send a formal statement containing a stamped or printed reminder of the terms of the sale. After this a form letter containing a similar but more complete statement of these terms may be sent. If the customer is one of long standing and secure financial position, other statements may be sent at the first of each month or at such intervals as the policy of the house may determine. How long this process should be continued depends entirely upon the general policy as adapted to a particular case. The assumption throughout this stage of the collection process is that the customer will pay of his own volition and that he merely needs to be reminded of his obligation. The object is to continue friendly relations and to secure further orders. For this purpose form letters or other sales material may be included with the statements which are sent.

There are reminders and reminders. Compare these two:

Mr. Oliver Winside,
Groveacre, Colorado.

Dear Sir:

Our records show that your March balance is still unpaid. As it is now long overdue, we shall be obliged if you will kindly favor us with a remittance by return mail.

Yours truly,

Mrs. Marie Creswell,
376 Westfall Street,
Chicago, Illinois.

Dear Madam:

Pardon us for calling attention to the fact that you have forgotten last month's coal bill, but this month's bill is soon to be made up and accounts must not be in arrears.

We know how easy it is to overlook these small matters. But now that you have it in mind won't you attend to it at once? Just fold your remittance in the enclosed blank, using the self-addressed envelope, so it will not be confused with the current month's bill. Thank you.

Yours respectfully,

47. The Second Stage in the Collection Process: Discovering the Cause

If the statements and form reminders bring no response, it is time to write a personal letter. The correspondent can no longer assume that the delay in payment is due to an oversight. There must be some other reason and he needs to know first of all what that reason is. In order to ascertain the reason he may write the debtor a courteous letter asking for a frank explanation of the cause of his delay. Such a letter should emphasize the fact that credit is a business man's most valuable asset and that the customer cannot afford to get into the delinquent class and lose his previously good credit standing. This letter should show the customer that the house appreciates his business and assumes that he will pay without causing any trouble.

If the desired explanation is forthcoming, this will prob-

ably determine the later steps to be taken. But if the collector receives no response to his courteous request for an explanation the case assumes a more serious aspect. The correspondent may then write another letter, assuming that there is a certain reason for the delay, such as a temporary shortage of funds due to a slow season, and that the customer hesitates to confide this reason to the house. The desire of the firm to cooperate with its customers should be stressed in this letter. Offers of special arrangements, such as a time extension or an acceptance of partial payment, may be made.

48. The Third Stage in the Collection Process: Urging Payment

In the event that the collector receives no reply to any of his offers of cooperation he is forced to assume that the debtor's delinquency is serious and may result in a loss to the house. In order to avoid this loss he sets about the task of convincing the debtor of the reasons why he should pay at once, and of persuading him to act, either by making a remittance or by making special arrangements to cover his case. Showing the debtor that the house needs the money is apt to have but little effect. When a delinquent has delayed this long it is probably for reasons which make useless any appeals to his sense of justice and fair play. Appeals to self-interest are more likely to produce results. Show the debtor that by a continuance of his delay he will lose standing, not only with your firm but with all reputable firms. Show him that such a loss will eventually lead to complete failure, for no modern business can be conducted without credit.

49. The Fourth Stage in the Collection Process: Compelling Payment

When all attempts to secure payment through reasonable methods and appeals have failed, the collector is forced to the conclusion that drastic action must be employed. He may then turn the account over to a collection agency, he may send a draft to the customer's bank, or he may bring

a lawsuit. He may take each of these steps in turn. Before taking any such drastic action he may notify the debtor of what he has decided to do and make a final attempt to secure payment through an appeal to fear. If he sends such a notice and fails to receive a reply, the collector should carry out the action exactly as threatened. The practice of making severe threats and then failing to carry them out will inevitably result in a loss of respect for the house and will only confirm the debtor in his habit of delaying payment.

50. The Need for Adaptation in Collection Letters

The writing of collection letters is not an exact science. It is an art, and in all of the arts the basic principle is that of adapting and utilizing available means for the attainment of desired results. The foregoing suggestions and specimens are not meant to cover exhaustively all possible situations in which the need for collection letters may arise. Nor are they intended as formulæ to be applied everywhere, regardless of circumstances. Situations vary so much that a thorough treatment of the subject of collections would require at least a volume in itself. Consider the following series of collection letters in the light of the principles which we have been discussing. These letters were sent by a city furniture store to a retail customer in the city. All four letters were sent within a period of thirty days.

Mr. John T. McClland,
239 North 39th Street,
Lincoln, Nebraska.

Dear Sir:

Our records show this account unpaid. No doubt you have overlooked it.

We have a great many accounts to handle and your cooperation in promptly making your remittance or payment will be greatly appreciated.

Very truly yours,

Mr. John T. McClland,
239 North 39th Street,
Lincoln, Nebraska.

Dear Mr. McClland:

We have courteously called your attention recently to your account and fully believed that you would give it your attention before this.

As we have received no reply we thought our letter may not have been received, and consider it only fair that we should write to you again.

Please forward us your check, unless there is some good reason why you cannot, or ought not to pay your account, in which case please inform us at once so that no misunderstanding may result.

We trust that we shall hear from you promptly.

Yours very truly,

Mr. John T. McClland,
239 North 39th Street,
Lincoln, Nebraska.

Dear Mr. McClland:

We have written you several friendly letters, stating that we should appreciate a settlement of your overdue account.

It is hard for us to understand why you have not responded, as the impression we had of your financial responsibility was that you were well able to take care of your obligations.

It often happens, however, that persons are prevented by circumstances from carrying out their best intentions.

Our feelings toward you are the kindest, and we are not disposed to expect anything unreasonable of you.

All we ask is that you let us know your exact circumstances, and we doubtless can suggest a convenient method by which you can clear this debt.

We shall look forward with much interest to your reply.

Very truly yours,

Mr. John T. McClland,
239 North 39th Street,
Lincoln, Nebraska.

Dear Mr. McClland:

Not long ago we wrote you respecting your account with us. We fully expected you to reply, if not with a remittance, at least with an explanation.

You must admit that we have taken a rather unusual course in your case in waiting this long for you to settle your account, but we have always believed you would eventually pay this bill; we believed it from the very first, else we should have declined it.

Now we do not want to deal with the legal end of this matter; we know you owe it, and you know it as well, but we prefer to effect some satisfactory adjustment with you.

If you have anything to offer looking towards a discharge of this account, even though it be not in full, we shall believe you are acting in good faith, and shall forestall any action which we may have contemplated.

We shall anticipate your reply with the greatest confidence.

Yours truly,

CHAPTER V

LETTERS OF COMPLAINT AND ADJUSTMENT

51. Making a Complaint

As long as human nature and man-made machinery remain imperfect, occasions for claims and complaints will arise in the conduct of affairs. Fortunate is he whose day's business does not bring to the forefront at least once this imperfection. In spite of his best efforts to anticipate any possible error, the goods which he has ordered will sometimes be delayed, or misdirected, or damaged, or mischarged. It seems almost inevitable that he will sometimes be dunned for an account which he has already paid, or be charged for goods which he has returned, or be confronted with a consignment of goods long after his need for them has passed.

It does not follow that every evidence of friction in the running of the great and complicated machine called modern business furnishes a legitimate basis for a formal claim or complaint. A percentage of error is to be expected, and he who has not attained perfection himself should beware of sliding into the state of mind represented by "the chronic kicker." Those who are transacting business by mail without the advantage of personal contact need to be especially wary of this danger. They need to bear in mind the observation of "A Homemade Father to His Son" when he says: "There's somethin' in human nater that makes it easier to cuss a person when he ain't there. I can tell a man things over the phone I'd never have the heart to say to his face unless I had him tied to the chair. And still more I can write a letter that would ruin the insulatin' on the telephone wire."

When you have a legitimate complaint involving a mat-

ter worth bothering about, take it up, by all means. Write a plain and straightforward account of the matter from the beginning, such an account as will be entirely clear to your reader. Confine yourself to specific facts, first, as to what has actually happened, and second, as to how this has affected your affairs and what it has meant to you. Ask for an adjustment of the matter, stating definitely your own desires and preferences. If you want an order cancelled, or substituted, or decreased, say so with frankness. Remember, above all, that your purpose is not to give vent to your anger or excitement over the affair, but to stimulate some sort of action by your reader, action which will rectify the error and at least partially compensate for the loss which you have suffered. Anger is the poorest foundation in the world upon which to build a fulfilment of this purpose. The angry man has lost self-control, and no man in that condition can control the actions of others. Even though the case may be so bad as to seem to you to justify anger, your chances of successfully attaining your object will be far greater if you will exercise self-control.

Consider the following actual letters of complaint with respect to the points discussed above. Consider also how you would handle each of these cases if it were your task to make the adjustments involved.

Mr. T. H. Maley,
Denver, Colorado.

Dear Sir:

Upon my return home I find that Policy No. 18949 on the grain I have stored on my farm was written at a rate of \$1.80 when it should have been written at 90c. Kindly look this matter up and make the proper correction.

Very truly yours,

MR. JOHN McCLOW.

The News-Times

Dear Sirs:—

Some time ago I wrote you about my Sunday daily, through the month of Jan. I think I received two Dailys and no funny

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paper. Now I sent an extra dollar to have the funny paper for my children and if you are not going to send them please return my dollar if you don't you will hear from me again this is the second time I have written you concerning this so please give it some attention.

Yours,

B. J. JACOBS.

Stanford, Nebr.,
R. R. 8.

Gentlemen: I would be very glad you would sent out yor ajestor and clame agent at once to ajest my damages, agenst yor company. if we cannot settel I am redy to pick our artibttors. I wood be very glad to hear from you at once on the matter.

Yors very Respt.

B. M. BUSH.

Claim of W. U. Durner

Dear Sir:—

I wish to put in a claim for my brother W. U. Durner to wit: That on or about the 10th day of January 1922 one 2 year old mule died from effects of drinking gass, from a broken pipe of said company, which was permitted to exist in that condition for many weeks and months. The value of said mule was \$100.00 which we claim for lose of said mule. That said mule died on Dr. J. R. Smith's place, 2 miles southwest of Nework Pass. We do beg an early settlement of said claim and information or evidence may be acquired from James Dee and several fellows on the place. If said claim is not settled within a reasonable time we will act as the law directs. The pipe line runs through place. I believe this is enough to inform you where to go to see about it, if you should desire to find out if the facts are true in said claim.

Yours most sincerely,

A. D. DURNER.

Address Western, Tex

Johnstone Gas Company,
Newark, New Jersey.

Gentlemen:—I have wrote you several letters in regard to a settlement and you told me just as soon as the roads dried up there would be a man up to settle with but no one has never come and dont look like ever will. you people surely do not

want to go through a man's farm and not settle damage. you have never settled for the riteaway yet. I think it is getting time to do something. I have heard several people speaking about the gas line. I think they are getting perty sore, so I would like to have a settlement and leave those promises off.

Yours truly,

DAN BLACKWELL,
Burwell, N. J.

Mr. E. C. Serel,
835 Fraternity Building,
Chicago, Illinois.

Dear Sir:

Your letter to Dr. John B. Hauser reached this office. Will you kindly take cognizance of the following?

1. The information below has been given to representatives of the Mergar Publishing Company. Whether or not it reached the proper men, I do not know.

2. Dr. John B. Hauser is out of the city on a two months' vacation, and will return during the latter part of August.

3. The bill mentioned is not owed by this firm, and I know nothing of it. It may be a private matter of Dr. Hauser's.

4. The representative of the Mergar Publishing Company came in with the bill two days ago. I informed him that I knew nothing of it and asked him to find out what it was for and when the services were rendered. In place of doing that, they place the account in collection.

5. Dr. John Hauser pays all his bills promptly, and is very careful of his reputation in this respect. If this bill has not been paid, there is some good and just reason for it. If there is a fault, I think it is on the side of the Mergar Publishing Company; if they had done the right thing, the bill would have been paid promptly.

6. Dr. John B. Hauser is a man to fight for a principle, regardless of its cost. If the bill is just it will be paid as soon as he can get to it. If it is not just, he will never pay it.

I can promise you that he will resent very highly the fact that the bill was placed in collection without any explanation; and he will expect that it be made right.

I am requesting you to consider the above statements carefully; to take them up with the Mergar Publishing Company, and to report to me the outcome.

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I am willing to do what I can to get to the bottom of the matter, before the matter comes to Dr. John B. Hauser's knowledge. If it does come to his ears, I can assure you that he will leave no stone unturned to sift it, and see whose fault it is.

Very truly yours,

Mister Sallie House Sanfrisco.

Dear Fren: I got the Valva which i by from you alrite but why for god's sake you doan sen me no handle. I loose to my customer sureting, you doan treet me rite, is my money no so good to you as to the otha fella. I wate ten days and my customer he holla for the valva. you no he is hot summer and the win he no blow the weel. you don send me the handle pretty queek I sen her back and I order some valva from Kraine Co.

Good by

• your Fren.

P. S. since I rite i find the handle in the box, excuse to me.

Elite Glove Company,
Chicago, Illinois.

Gentlemen:

Three weeks ago I purchased at the Kenneth Department Store, your Springfield representatives, a pair of grey suede, number six and one-quarter, dress gloves. A few days ago the index finger of the right-hand glove ripped its whole length. Since you guarantee your gloves to give "perfect satisfaction," I felt justified in asking the Kenneth people for a new pair of gloves. The department manager refused to replace the gloves or to refund the purchase price, which was eight dollars. But he was willing to sell me another pair for half price.

I believe I am entitled to a new pair of gloves to replace those which have proved of defective workmanship, or else I should have my money refunded.

Will you have your Springfield representative either give me a duplicate pair or a refund?

Very truly,

52. Fundamental Principles in Adjusting a Complaint

Since some complaints are bound to arise, every business institution should have a general policy for handling them and every correspondent should be thoroughly familiar

with the policy of the firm for which he works. Experience leads different firms to somewhat different methods of handling complaints, but the object of all of these methods is the same. This object is to adjust the particular complaint in a manner that is fair to all concerned and at the same time to insure a continuance of friendly relations with the customer.

“Satisfaction guaranteed” is a universal slogan among the reputable business institutions of our day. Some firms have gone so far as to adopt the policy that “the customer is always right.” This attitude is founded upon a belief that no other advertisement is equal to a satisfied customer and that no expenditure proves to be a better investment than that which is devoted to the process of insuring satisfaction. And satisfaction can be insured only through genuine service. Men are no longer willing to concede that business is always and necessarily a state of warfare. The best exponents of business in our day exclude altogether the idea of warfare and substitute for it the ideal of service.

53. The First Step in Making an Adjustment

The maker of a mistake will sometimes become conscious that he has erred even before his error is noticed or referred to by anyone else. In such a case the proper thing for him to do is to initiate the process of adjustment without waiting for a complaint to be made. But in the greater number of instances it is the man at the other end of the line who discovers the trouble and who begins the process by sending in his complaint. The first thing for the adjuster to do is to acknowledge courteously the receipt of the complaint, to show willingness to do justice and give satisfaction, and to promise that the matter will receive immediate and careful attention. The following is an example of such a letter:

Mr. Michael Hardy,
Helena, Montana.

Dear Sir:

Thank you for your letter of the 13th, in which you call attention to the bill which you have received for an account

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already paid. We appreciate your clear and frank statement of the case and wish to assure you that we shall take steps at once to discover the source of this error.

We have been reorganizing our credit and collection department during the past month, hoping to bring it up to a higher level of efficiency. As a part of this reorganization we have shifted several men to new positions and have employed a number of new assistants. All of these men are thoroughly reliable and all are experienced in the work to which they have been assigned. But the process of change necessarily involves some difficulties and some dangers. Evidently one of the new men has made a misstep in connection with your account.

We shall proceed at once to trace this error to its source and shall take special pains to see that it is not repeated.

Very truly yours.

If the problem presented by the complaint is a very simple one or one which you have met with many times before, you will have your method of handling it so well worked out that you can make the adjustment at once, without waiting for further investigation. But few of the problems involved in complaints are so simple as to permit of this procedure. Practically every case involves some new and peculiar element. Often, too, the complainant is not entirely clear in his statement of the trouble. In such a case he should be asked at once to supply the missing details of information. If further evidence or verification of the facts which he has cited is necessary, this requirement should be indicated to him at once. Any delay in the process of adjustment serves only to irritate the complainant and to obscure the facts. A thoroughly just settlement must be based upon the actual facts and access to these facts naturally becomes more difficult as time goes on. For this reason a record of all facts relating to a complaint should be completed at the earliest possible moment after the complaint is filed. It is advisable, also, to keep accurate data concerning every action that is taken in the case, from first to last. Such a record is an asset in any case and is especially important in those complicated cases which extend over a long period of time.

54. Investigating the Complaint

The investigation of a complaint should reveal all of the facts concerning the case. It should reveal the nature and extent of the trouble, and above all the exact cause. The investigator needs ready access to a complete record of the transaction, including the part played by the seller, the buyer, and the transportation companies or other intermediaries that have taken part in it. Besides these facts there are certain other elements which must be taken into account in constructing the letter to be sent to a claimant. Is he a "chronic kicker" who has failed so often to respond to reasonable treatment that he had better be dropped altogether? Such a case is the rare exception. Is he an old customer or a new one? Is he a regular customer or an occasional one? Have his purchases been unusually large or unusually small? The main part of the adjuster's responsible duty is to assist in making an old customer out of a new one, a regular customer out of an occasional one, and a large purchaser out of a small one.

55. When the Seller is at Fault

The investigation of a complaint will usually reveal the fact that the fault which occasioned the difficulty lies either with the seller or with the buyer. If the seller is clearly at fault, the adjustment should be made at once. No reputable business institution can afford to avoid its just obligations whether large or small. What seems to you a very trivial error, hardly worth the bother of an adjustment, probably looks a great deal more important to the claimant and may be sufficient to influence his later actions in a way that will be distinctly unfavorable to you. Human nature is such that it is difficult for a man to admit that he has made a mistake. But "the wise and brave dares own that he was wrong."

If the error occurred unquestionably in your part of the transaction, admit it frankly, make specific amends, and add such assurance as you can that the error will not be repeated. But do not indulge in excessive promises about future conduct which you will not be able to carry out.

Remember that some of the imperfections of human nature and of man-made devices will continue to exist even after this case has been satisfactorily disposed of. Make the complainant feel that you are willing and eager to eliminate all errors but do not disgust him by making promises which any reasonable person knows you will be unable to fulfil. The following letter admits frankly that the house was at fault and adopts a reasonable attitude toward the whole matter:

Mr. John C. Henry,
Fort Carlson, New York.

Dear Sir:

Please accept our thanks for your promptness in informing us of our error in filling your order of January 10th. Problems of adjustment would be very much simplified if everyone who has a complaint would follow your policy of making it at once upon receipt of the goods.

We are sending by parcel post the 1250 Special Lead Pencils, Number 1064, which you ordered. These should reach you at the same time as this letter. We sincerely hope that this will be satisfactory to you.

As for the 1250 Stub Pencils, Number 1682, which were sent you by mistake, you may have your option. You may either return these to us at your convenience and deduct the parcel post charges from your next payment, or you may keep them at a discount of 10% from the catalog price. We believe that you will be able to dispose of these pencils without any difficulty. At this price they will net you a good profit.

We shall trace this error in our shipping department and shall take every precaution against its repetition.

Very truly yours,

56. When the Buyer is at Fault

When the investigation reveals that the customer was at fault, the task of the adjustment correspondent is more difficult. In special cases the house may deem it advisable to grant the claim even though the fault was clearly with the customer. The letter in such a case should contain a definite statement of the action which the house has taken or is about to take, followed by a statement of the special

reasons upon which this concession is based. These reasons should show the customer clearly that the house considers his good will so valuable that it will go out of its way in order to continue congenial relations. The correspondent's main problem in such a case is to make the customer feel that the house has his welfare at heart and to do this without any suggestion of condescension. The following letter grants a claim which might have been contested or even refused and does it in a manner designed to build good will:

Mr. Hugh Kindler,
Chicago, Illinois.

Dear Sir:

Your letter of February 12th concerning the round-head bolts which you received in place of square-head has just reached this office. We wish to thank you for calling our attention to this matter.

In your order of February 1st for 1500 Bolts, $\frac{1}{4}$ " x 4", you did not specify square-head. Therefore, we naturally went on the assumption that you wanted regular carriage bolts with round heads. Square-head bolts of this size are rarely called for; in fact, we have had some difficulty in securing them at all. But we have them now, and they will go out by American Express this afternoon.

We are very sorry that this mistake occurred and we hope that you will not be caused any loss by the delay in receiving the particular bolts which you wanted. The square-heads which we are sending are of first class quality and have extra long threads. They will give you the best possible service.

Do you want to keep the round-head bolts? If you do, you may deduct 10% from the quoted price. If you wish to return them, you may deduct express charges from your bill. We want you to be thoroughly satisfied.

Very truly yours,

When the customer is clearly at fault his claim is usually refused. Turning down a customer's claim and at the same time retaining his good will is the most difficult of all the tasks which come to the adjustment correspondent. The successful accomplishment of this result requires a deep understanding of human nature with its complex of mo-

tives, desires, and ideals. Such an understanding cannot be acquired through any memorization of formulæ but only through careful observation and study continued persistently over a long period of years. It is this fact that makes a business institution so loath to lose a man who has mastered these secrets in some degree and to substitute for him a "young upstart" whose whole equipment is in the form of theory.

It is the practice of good adjustment letter writers to begin their letters as pleasantly as possible. If a letter is to contain the refusal of a claim, introduce this refusal by giving some indication that you understand the claimant's position and that you appreciate his point of view in the matter. Instead of adding to his anger by showing anger on your part, be as calm and composed as possible, and perhaps you will be able to lead him to a similar state of mind. State your refusal in a frank and straightforward manner and follow this statement immediately with your reasons. Explain thoroughly the basis of your action and show that it is entirely reasonable. Appeal to the claimant's sense of justice, but do not go so far as to suggest that you are defending yourself. Your action needs explanation but it should never need defense or apology. When the complainant has shown his anger and you feel that there is any chance of pacifying him, your letter may well be somewhat longer than the usual letter. In handling complaints avoid above all else any suggestion that the complainant is guilty of wilful neglect or that the trouble is due to ignorance or dishonesty on his part. Emphasize your general policy of making adjustments and your desire to do the right thing in every individual case. The following letter refusing a claim proceeds tactfully and reveals an understanding of the claimant's point of view:

Mrs. W. A. Wiggins,
Hutchville, Oklahoma.

Dear Mrs. Wiggins:

Thank you for your frank letter of the 10th concerning the A. B. Washing Machine which you purchased from us last

month. Having put in a goodly number of Monday mornings furnishing the power for an old-fashioned machine, we are in a position to appreciate your mood at the time you wrote your letter.

"The belt simply won't stay on," you say. Have you tried stretching it by means of the turn screw under the machine? Have you tried shortening the belt? It is perfectly normal that the belt should stretch somewhat after being used, and particularly in this hot weather. The special turn screw is provided to take care of this inevitable stretching. If the screw is not long enough in itself, you can increase its effectiveness by putting a stick of wood under it.

As for taking the machine back, that would be out of the question at this late date. It has been in your possession for over a month and has probably had such wear as would make it unsalable as a new machine. Anyway, you don't want to lose all of the advantages of this new model machine simply because the belt has given you a little trouble. Thousands of A. B.'s are in use every Monday morning and are giving satisfactory service.

Very truly yours,

57. Other Sources of Fault

It sometimes develops that a transportation company or some other third party was wholly to blame for the trouble involved in a complaint. In such a case the house, with its superior facilities, will probably do best to assume responsibility for effecting a settlement if it can legally do so. Even if the claim must be entered by the customer, the house can give him moral support and can advise him concerning the best mode of procedure. The following letter illustrates how such advice can be offered:

Mr. P. L. Hendricks,
Battle Creek, Missouri.

Dear Mr. Hendricks:

Please accept our thanks for your prompt notification concerning the damaged tubs which you have received. Difficulties such as these will inevitably arise but they can usually be settled to the satisfaction of all concerned if they are only taken up at once.

Your order for these tubs reached us on the 19th and was filled on the 21st. Before being loaded for shipment each tub

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was subjected to our usual rigid inspection to make sure that it was in perfect condition in every respect. We learned long ago to take this necessary precaution and to make no exceptions whatever to our rule that every individual article must pass inspection before being turned over to the transportation company.

Whatever damage the tubs showed when you received them occurred in transit. If you have not already done so, get your local freight agent's notation on the bill of lading showing that the goods arrived in a damaged condition. Estimate the amount of damage that was done and enter a claim against the railroad company. Or if you prefer, send us the bill of lading and a complete statement of the facts and we will do the best we can to effect a prompt settlement.

Do you need any more tubs to replace the damaged ones? We shall take extra precautions in boxing your next order and shall hope for safer transportation.

Yours very truly,

Sometimes it is impossible to determine, even by the most careful investigation, the exact source of the error or to place the blame precisely where it belongs. Many firms make it a practice to assume the responsibility and cost in such instances. It is entirely proper for the correspondent in such a case to explain the circumstances to the customer and to make it plain to him that he is receiving very liberal treatment. But the writer of this letter should beware of assuming an overbearing attitude and of implying that by accepting this favor the customer will place himself under special obligations to the house. The following letter shows how one firm handled a case of this kind, in which the exact source of the trouble was never discovered:

Mr. B. M. Bouer,
Turley, Colorado.

Dear Mr. Bouer:

By this time you have probably received the goods called for in your order of the 4th. We duplicated the original order exactly and feel sure that you will find every item satisfactory.

We sincerely regret the inconvenience and possible loss which you may have suffered from this delay. We pride ourselves on

our efficient shipping department and seldom have occasion to handle cases such as yours.

Upon receipt of your letter of the 10th we started an immediate investigation. Your order was received on the 5th and was filled on the 6th. The goods were shipped via C. & N. W. as you requested. Our records are clear on these points. We started a tracer after the goods but as yet we have heard nothing of them. They may turn up some day and they may not.

We are sending you a duplicate invoice in order that your own records will be complete. You will, of course, simply destroy the invoice dated May 6th and substitute the one dated May 29th.

It is our desire to render you the most prompt and efficient service and we shall seek to do this at all times.

Yours very truly,

The most difficult cases to adjust are those in which responsibility for the trouble is divided among two or more parties. If you insist upon making each party bear exactly his proportionate share of the loss, you will probably have a long and difficult task ahead of you. But the sum involved may be so large or the principle involved may be so important as to make this procedure worth while, no matter how long or how arduous the task may prove to be. The following letter aims only to begin the process of adjustment in a complicated case of divided responsibility:

Mr. M. R. Hoover,
Camden, Mass.

Dear Mr. Hoover:

Thank you for your letter of the 14th concerning the books which you have received instead of the Home Library Set which you bought from our agent, Mr. Brown. There has evidently been an error somewhere, for the Home Library Set which you ordered is still here awaiting the initial payment called for in your contract.

Did you examine the package carefully when you received it? Are you sure that it was addressed to you? If you have the wrapper, please note carefully the address which it contains and notify us at once. It may be that the mistake occurred in your local post office. It is possible that Mr. Brown may have confused two addresses in sending in his orders. If you cannot tell

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with certainty to whom the books were addressed, please inform us of this fact and we will send postage to cover the return of the books.

Your useful and elegant Home Library Set is ready to be sent as soon as we receive that first payment. You cannot afford to delay longer in getting these valuable volumes into your hands. Let us hear from you at once.

Truly yours,

CHAPTER VI

THE APPLICATION AND RELATED LETTERS

58. A Universal Need

At one time or another in his life nearly every person has occasion to write a letter of application. This does not mean that everyone finds himself at some time wholly without employment. The letter of application is the natural medium for the experienced employee who is ambitious to improve his circumstances as well as for the youth who is seeking his first position. It is no disgrace for anyone to apply for a position, but it is a disgrace to do so in a slovenly manner.

In the face of this universal need there is a general ignorance of the proper procedure in applying for a position that is little less than surprising. The remarkable improvement which has been effected in the other types of business letter is only beginning to appear in the letter of application. A long list of employers who were questioned on this point return the information that about ninety-five per cent of the letters of application which they receive are so poorly constructed and make such a poor initial impression that they are discarded at once. Only five letters out of a hundred are even considered by these employers.

The inferiority of applicants' letters is due, at least in part, to the fact that the business letter has been studied and discussed a great deal in recent years from the employer's point of view, but relatively little from the viewpoint of the employee. It is the applicant's turn to receive some attention. The individual who can turn out a neat, well-constructed, businesslike letter of application obviously has a great advantage. On the other hand, the writer of

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such a slovenly letter as the following is not apt to receive favorable consideration. Would you hire him?

St Louis, Missouri.,
August 30, 1921,

Dispatch Box No, 492
City,

Your add in the Sunday Dispatch at hand, in answer would say;

Have had experience in all lines of general office work in a insurance office, also as book-keeper for a grocery corporation.

Am employed at present but it is all night work and would like to make a change to day work

If you would grant me a interview Phone F 213 and oblige

RESPECTFULLY.

G. T. Weller

59. Make Some Preliminary Preparation

Before one rushes into the quest after a position in which he may possibly spend the better part of his life he can surely afford to spend a little time in making a preliminary study. We are speaking now, not of a student seeking temporary employment during a vacation period, but of the young man or woman who is ready to enter seriously and permanently into the business world. Such a person, ambitious to forge ahead and to succeed, is interested not alone in immediate returns, but even more in opportunities for advancement and progress.

Information concerning such opportunities is usually difficult to secure. When a position is advertised as vacant some information is commonly given as to the nature of the work and the amount of the compensation. But as a rule little is said concerning the future opportunities which the position offers. The ambitious youth wants to know first of all whether or not the position is worth while. If an announcement in which you are interested does not sufficiently answer this question, you will do well to precede your application by a letter of inquiry. This can be

addressed either to the employer directly or to someone else who is apt to have the desired information, preferably someone with whom you have close acquaintance. But beware of consuming too much time with this part of the process, for the employer will probably be hearing from other applicants in the meantime. The following letter of inquiry concerning a position contains some good suggestions:

Mr. David Moyles,
Chicago, Illinois.

Dear Mr. Moyles:

Current report has it that the assistant manager of your advertising department recently departed for good and sufficient reasons and that his position has not yet been filled. Can you verify this report for me?

I am somewhat interested in the rumor, for I have been devoting more and more of my time to the advertising end over here. It seems to me that a position with Blank and Company might open up bigger opportunities than I have here. What do you think of it? What chance would a man of my limited experience stand of getting in and getting ahead?

I shall be glad to have you give me some information and advice in this matter, and if I can ever return the favor I shall be mighty glad to do it.

Sincerely yours,

When you have decided that a certain position is worth while trying for, because it offers those opportunities which you desire, you are ready to gather the material for your letter of application. The advertisement, when there is one, may give all the information that is needed. But that applicant has a decided advantage who knows more about the position than the advertisement tells him. From one source or another you should find out definitely what is demanded of the person who is to fill this position. You should study the employer's needs, regarding him as a prospective customer to whom you are endeavoring to sell your services. When you realize fully what are the employer's needs, you should undertake a self-examination to

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determine whether or not you have the proper qualifications to enable you to supply those needs. The basic principle is that of getting the other man's point of view.

60. Plan Your Letter

When you have learned something about the position and something about yourself in relation to it, you will be prepared to lay out the plan of your letter. If you are answering an advertisement, you will do best to organize your letter according to the plan which it suggests. But whether you are following an advertisement or proceeding on your own initiative, there are certain things which your letter must contain. There is a logical order of steps in a letter of application and you will do well to follow this order consistently unless there is some special reason for deviating from it. The parts of a good application, arranged in their logical order, are as follows:

1. An immediate statement of the purpose of your letter, namely, to apply for a certain specified position.
2. A statement of the source of your information about the vacancy, or the reason which led you to apply.
3. An indication that you understand the needs of the position and the nature and importance of its duties.
4. A statement of your qualifications for successfully undertaking these duties.
5. The names of a few persons to whom reference may be made for the purpose of verifying these statements or of securing additional information.
6. A request for an appointment for a personal interview.

The following application contains all of these six parts:

The H. J. Richler Company,
Chicago, Illinois.

Gentlemen:

Mr. J. R. Black of your advertising department suggested that I apply for the position of head clerk in the multigraph, addressing, and mailing department of your mail-order house.

My understanding is that you desire a young man who knows how to operate and keep in running order the multigraph, multi-color press, folding machine, mailometer, and addressing machine, although the position offered is not an operator's job.

Executive ability and experience in this line of work are essential.

I am prepared for this position. I am twenty, a graduate of the Brookwell High School in 1915, and the Simmon's Business College in 1916. I have been in the employ of the United Life Insurance Company of Chicago from 1917 to the present time. When I first entered their service, I operated the multigraph and the addressograph machine. Later I became assistant head clerk in their mailing and filing department. From this work I learned the machines used and became proficient in handling them. I was given supervision of the three operators and two clerks in the department. My present employers will be glad to testify as to my ability and character. I am willing to leave my present employment because of the greater experience, increased salary, and wider opportunity which your company offers.

Though I have not had as much experience as I should like, I believe that your company appreciates hard and faithful work and offers opportunity to one who is willing to work hard for advancement. I am sure that in a short time I can help to make your addressing and mailing department highly efficient and satisfactory.

Mr. Black has permitted me to use his name as reference concerning my experience and character. Mr. Oscar L. Davies, principal of the Brookwell High School, is also willing to satisfy you as to my scholarship and reliability. I enclose the names and business addresses of two other gentlemen to whom you may write.

I thank you for your consideration and hope that you will grant me an interview some morning this week or at another time convenient to you. Please address me at 710 Market Place.

Very truly yours,

61. State Your Purpose at Once

Good business letters proceed directly to the matter in hand. As the busy man goes through his mail, taking up one letter after another, it is natural that the first sentence catches his eye and determines very largely his attitude toward the rest of the letter. He wants to know at once what the letter is about and whether or not it merits any special consideration. If he is compelled to go through a whole letter in order to find out what it is about, he cannot help but form an unfavorable impression of the writer.

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It is right here that many applicants fail. For some reason, perhaps from false modesty, they hesitate to put their purpose forward at the beginning of the letter. Instead, they postpone this until after their statement of qualifications, forgetting that information about their training and experience has no meaning whatever to the reader until he knows the writer's purpose in introducing it. Often this postponement leads to omission. Many letters are sent which are regarded as applications by the writers but which are not applications at all because they lack this essential element. Make sure that your letter contains in a single sentence a direct statement that you are an applicant for the position. Put this sentence preferably at the very opening of your letter. Some first sentences taken from actual letters of application are listed here.

Poor openings:

1. Your adv. as per clipping attached has been noted by me.
2. The writer is a stenographer with experience.
3. Enclosed you will find my record in detail.
4. Re your add in Sunday paper.
5. I am 22 years and experienced bookkeeper.
6. Your add at hand and would say.
7. I hear you people are in the market for a stenographer.
8. In regard to your Times ad of the 20th I am a young man who is experienced in office work.

Better Openings:

1. I am very much interested in the clerical position you offered in this morning's *News-Times*.
2. On January 20th I shall be ready for just such a position as Mr. B. J. Smith tells me you have open for a well-trained and efficient accountant.
3. My qualifications for the position you advertised in Sunday's *Journal* are such as I think you will find satisfactory.
4. Mr. Wilbur Avery of your advertising department suggested that I apply for a position as sales manager of your retail force.
5. Please consider me an applicant for the position of Superintendent of Agents in your company as advertised in the January 25th *Herald*.

62. Indicate the Source of Your Information

It is customary for an applicant to state the source of his information about the vacancy or the reason which led him to apply for the position. This statement either follows immediately the opening sentence, in which the writer states his specific purpose, or is incorporated into the same sentence. If your letter is written in response to an advertisement, you should make your reference to the particular advertisement so specific as to leave no chance for confusion. The same employer may advertise two or more vacancies at the same time and the applicant should make it perfectly clear to which one he is replying. Instead of a general reference to "your advertisement," say "your advertisement for a stenographer in the mailing department." It is advisable also to cite the full name and the exact issue of the paper in which the advertisement appeared. Never say "your ad in the paper" or "your ad in the Sunday paper." Instead of saying "your ad in the *Post*," say "your advertisement for a checker in the shipping department which appeared in the New York *Evening Post* for January 16, 1922."

Most letters of application are written in response to advertisements published by employers. But not all of them originate in this way. Many of the biggest vacancies in the business world are never advertised, but are filled by other means. Your information about the vacancy may come from a friend who has your welfare at heart. This is often a better source of information than is an advertisement, especially if your friend is already in the employ of the firm and has attained a position of trust. In such a case ask your friend for permission to use his name in this connection, and after he grants it open your letter in some such manner as this: "Mr. L. F. Johnson, of your credit department, has informed me that there is a vacancy in your city sales force and has advised me to apply for the position."

If you are not permitted to refer to specific names, you may say simply that you have heard of a vacancy and that

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you wish to apply. Although much less satisfactory than the preceding, this method has been known to produce favorable results. The procedure of writing an application under these circumstances reveals at least a certain degree of initiative, and initiative is a qualification highly prized by most employers.

Even though there has been no report of a present vacancy, it is sometimes profitable to send in an application together with a request that if there is no immediate opening for the writer, his application be filed and given consideration when a vacancy occurs. Such an application may be preceded by a letter of inquiry through which the applicant can learn something about the firm and its general policy in the selection of its employees. In any event, the application should be for a specific kind of work, and should contain a statement of the writer's qualifications for that particular work. A "blanket" application attempting to cover all possible circumstances will rarely be given serious consideration. The following is an example of a letter which has not been solicited in any manner by the employer. The applicant initiates the correspondence and endeavors to sell his services.

Everlasting Manufacturing Company,
Greentown, Pennsylvania.

Gentlemen:

On October 2nd I shall be ready for a connection with some manufacturing company such as the Everlasting, where creative sales ability will be welcomed.

I have been engaged in the business of selling for seven years, four of which I spent as sales manager with the Goodwell Company, where my income would be \$15,000 annually if I should continue to travel. Because my present position requires that the sales manager travel extensively over the country, I am desirous of making a connection with a firm using a resident sales manager.

I believe that my training and experience have fitted me for such a position of responsibility with your company.

I am married, forty, and a home owner. I have had a university and a law education. With my training and experience

I have developed leadership and personal sales ability which have inspired present and past associates to put big things over.

I have made special study of the problems of sales analysis, the psychology of selling, and the development and direction of a competent and spirited sales force which recognizes the importance of its work. I believe your firm is one which appreciates creative sales ability and a sales manager who regards selling as a science and a vocation of opportunity.

Mr. C. Bennett, President of the Goodwell Manufacturing Company, has permitted me to use his name as a reference. I have been associated with Mr. Bennett for over three years. Mr. Arthur E. Brown, Sales Manager for the Welton Company of Kansas City, Mo., and President of the Western Sales Association, is familiar with my work and character. He has permitted me to use his name in this connection. On the attached sheet I enclose the names and addresses of two other gentlemen who are willing to write or give interviews concerning my qualifications and character.

I shall be glad to have an interview with you next Wednesday morning at 10 o'clock. Is that time convenient to you? Please address me at 2010 State Street, or call me on telephone B 3944.

Very truly yours,

63. Show the Employer that You Understand his Needs

The employer is as interested in securing the right man as the applicant is in securing the right position. Their interests are at bottom identical, and the men who have in their power the awarding of the best positions are fully aware of this fact. The applicant who has and who clearly shows that he has an understanding of the needs and demands of the position from the employer's point of view will naturally receive special recognition. Few men in any walk of life have the ability to see a problem from another man's viewpoint. And fewer still are the hired workers who are both able and willing to see the problems of business from the standpoint of their employers. The man who reveals this capacity and this willingness consequently stands out with prominence among the mass of applicants. He shows himself not only worthy to be trusted in the present position but also to be possessed of qualities which

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will enable him to assume greater responsibility as time goes on.

The endeavor to show the employer that you understand his needs can, of course, easily be overdone. No employer cares to read a treatise on management or an essay of self-praise disguised as a letter of application. To suggest a broader grasp and a deeper understanding while making a plain statement of the facts concerning training and experience is a letter writing achievement requiring the greatest of skill. He who can successfully accomplish this task has proceeded a long way toward a mastery of the art of letter writing. These paragraphs, taken from letters of application, try to show the employer that the applicant understands his needs:

1. You are looking for a new office manager who can reorganize your force and increase the general efficiency of your office. You evidently prefer to get a man from outside of your own city. In this you are wise, I believe. It has been my experience that reorganization comes much easier to a man from outside. He does not have all of the petty jealousies and prejudices to contend with. He can distribute and place the employees on the basis of their individual capacity without reference to previous dickerings. There can be no doubt that you will increase greatly the efficiency of your force by putting the power of reorganization into the hands of a man from another city.

2. You want a stenographer who can combine accuracy and speed. You want your work done in the shortest possible time, and yet you do not want to sacrifice a single element of correctness. A man in your position of prominence cannot afford to let a single error creep into his correspondence. I believe that I can qualify for this position, both as to accuracy and speed.

3. You are looking for a salesman who can take your electrical goods into farming districts and sell direct to farmers. Your advertisement states that you prefer a man who has actually lived and worked on a farm. In this you are certainly right. No city man can ever really get the farmer's point of view. When it comes to discussing the need for electrical appliances on the farm, call in a man who has performed the various heavy tasks around a farm by the old hand-power methods. He will prove to be your best booster for labor-saving devices and he will be able to get the farmer's ear every time.

64. State Your Qualifications

The principal part of a letter of application is the applicant's statement of his qualifications. In the preceding parts of the letter he has said in effect: "I am informed that you have a vacancy. I wish to apply for this position. I am aware of the demands of this position." In this part of the letter the applicant says in effect: "I have the qualifications which will enable me to fill this position successfully and to render you satisfactory and valuable service."

When you are answering an advertisement it is well to take up in the original order the particular points mentioned there. If you are initiating the process, or if the advertisement is very general or incomplete, you must first of all make a selection of the points which you are to include and then arrange them in the most logical order. In determining what to include ask yourself these questions: "What does the employer want to know about me before he hires me? What should I want to know about an applicant if I were hiring him to fill this position? If I had him here for a personal interview, what should I ask him?" The answers to these questions will provide you with the best possible guide in the selection of your material and the best possible assurance that it is well adapted to the special problem before you.

Each point of information entitled to inclusion in a letter of application falls usually under one or the other of these three heads: Education, Experience, Personal. The detail with which each of these topics is treated varies, as does also the order in which they occur, depending upon the nature of the position and the relation of the applicant to it. For example, a good stenographer must be able to spell and punctuate correctly. This implies some general schooling. A good stenographer must also be able to use shorthand. This implies some specialized training. In some situations academic degrees are indispensable and in most others they are helpful. There are, of course, a few persons who are hostile toward anything that the schools attempt to do. In dealing with these exceptional persons you will do best to omit all mention of things academic and

to give added stress to the part of your letter which sets forth your practical experience.

The part of your letter dealing with practical experience should be prepared with special care in every case, for this is the part which lands or loses the position nine times out of ten. If your experience has been long and varied, do not try to include a complete record in detail. Select such portions as have a logical bearing upon the present case. Refer especially to the positions which you have held recently and to the one which you are holding now. It is a good idea to indicate why you wish to leave your present position, but avoid carefully any suggestion that this desire is due to unfair treatment. Sometimes when the statement of qualifications is very long it is placed on a separate sheet and referred to in the letter. Reference can be made in some such manner as this: "On the enclosed sheet you will find a record of my employment for the past ten years." This device should not be used in connection with a position of little consequence. In such a case it would look like an effort at display. The greatest difficulty about the statement of qualifications is the natural difficulty of striking the happy medium between a display of egotism on the one hand or of excessive modesty on the other. Neither the attitude of "I'm it" nor the attitude of "I'm nobody" is apt to produce a favorable result. Compare the attitude of the writers in these two letters:

Mr. P. A. Reaters,
Homes, Iowa.

My dear Sir:

Permit me to inform you that I should like to make a change to another position where I could enjoy a wider scope for the exercise of my abilities and experience; and if possible where the compensation is better than it is here.

If you know of anything in my line of mechanical engineering and especially mechanic arts, or even the presidency of a small, prosperous institution where good work will be appreciated, I shall most certainly be glad to learn of it.

I can furnish references of unquestionable character.

Respectfully yours,

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Taylor and Baylon Co.,
New York, New York.

Gentlemen:

Mr. J. C. Johnstone, Manager of the Tremain Importers, Inc., has been so considerate as to inform me that you are in need of an office manager at your Tampa branch office, and has advised me to apply for the position. I hope that I can qualify, as Mr. Johnstone seems to think I can.

Mr. Johnstone seemed to think that you would require someone with a great deal of experience and training. I am not an expert bookkeeper, nor have I had a great deal of experience. I have been a bookkeeper for the last four years, the whole of which time I spent with the Wyman Company of this city. This company likes to hire young upstarts who have little practical training but seem to get along with their nerve and their "science of business." I am not like those but I try to be accurate, faithful, and punctual. I suppose I am sometimes too conservative. But you may have more faith in the conservative kind of bookkeeper, and if so I should like to have such a place with you, if you don't think I could qualify as your Tampa Manager.

If you think you can use me in any capacity, I shall be glad to call for an interview.

Most respectfully yours,

Personal information as to age, nationality, health, and so forth, needs to be included only when it has been specifically asked for in an advertisement or in a previous letter. There is usually no harm in stating your age whether it has been asked for or not, but people in general do not have a high degree of respect for the individual who volunteers detailed information about his personal affairs. Similarly, a statement of the salary expected should as a rule be included only in reply to a previous question.

The following statements of qualifications, taken from letters of application, indicate several ways in which these facts can be introduced:

1. I firmly believe that I have the qualifications that will enable me to undertake the duties of this position and to fulfil them successfully. During my three years of service as private secretary to Mr. Bollen, President of the Bollen Power Company, I have come into close contact with the problems that must be

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faced by business executives. Although I have not carried the responsibility, I have seen the problems and I have studied them. From time to time Mr. Bollen has turned over minor problems to me.

2. You are doubtless aware of the high standards maintained in the Western College of Commerce. I have completed the regular four-year course in this institution and in addition have pursued graduate studies for two terms. My graduate work has been principally with Professor L. L. Memser, who is a widely known authority on the subject of Money and Banking.

3. I have breathed the atmosphere of the law office ever since I was a youngster. My father had a flourishing practice in those days and he gave me an early introduction to the legal lore. Throughout my high school and college days I assisted him with routine work. I saw from the inside the actual workings of a busy law office and learned from experience the necessary qualifications of a good lawyer. You will see from this that I am not a book-made attorney.

65. Cite a Few Good References

Following the statement of your qualifications for the position desired you should cite the names of a few persons to whom the employer may write for the purpose of verifying your statements or of securing additional information. These references should be selected with great care. The persons chosen should, first of all, be able to speak authoritatively of your qualifications. Some one of your instructors, past or present, will be best fitted to speak concerning your education. The best reference as to your experience is a previous or present employer or the superintendent or manager under whose direction you have worked. If you are to include a reference as to general character, select for this purpose some person of high standing in the community, such as a superintendent of schools, a minister, or a banker. This person should be one who has known you for a considerable period of time.

The persons chosen as references should be such as are not only able to speak with authority concerning your qualifications but willing to speak favorably in your behalf. In order to avoid any possibility of misunderstanding, you should secure the permission of these persons before you

use their names in your letter of application. In cases of intimate acquaintance this process of securing previous permission may sometimes be dispensed with. But as a rule it is inadvisable to omit this courtesy.

There is one other consideration in the selection of references, and a very important one. The persons chosen should be such as will have a favorable influence with the one to whom you are addressing your application. If for any reason your references are not acceptable to him, all of their other qualifications go for naught. In other words, you must consider your references first from your own point of view and secondly from the point of view of your prospective employer. If he happens to be one of those men who are unalterably prejudiced against ministers, for example, a mail bag full of references from men of the cloth will avail you nothing.

Applicants in general seem inclined to cite more references than would be necessary. Three or four well chosen references are ordinarily sufficient. Present these references in list form and be sure to include full names, titles, positions, and exact mail addresses. If these data are very complicated, or if the letter is already long, the references may be listed on a separate sheet and referred to in the letter in a sentence something like this: "On the enclosed sheet you will find the names and addresses of four persons to whom you may refer concerning my past work and present qualifications." Often the name of one reference, usually the principal one, is included in the body of the letter and the names of others are listed on a separate sheet, which is referred to in a sentence similar to the foregoing example. The following example shows how all of the references may be cited in the body of the letter:

In this connection I am permitted to refer you to the following gentlemen of this city, who are well acquainted with my character, work, and present qualifications: Mr. A. C. Rockman, my present employer, President of the Ohio Grain Growers, Inc.; Mr. Z. C. Collins, President of the Commercial Bank; Mr. J. R. Wakefield, Advertising Manager of the Johnstone-Sturm Company; and Mr. C. L. Wickman, my former employer, President of the Johnstone-Sturm Company.

66. Request a Personal Interview

The selection of a person to fill a position of great importance is seldom made without a personal interview. In filling positions of all kinds it is becoming more and more common to require the applicants to appear in person before the final selection is made. Announcements of a vacancy frequently state that an interview will be required. At other times the announcement states that an interview will be preferred. In applying under such circumstances, the applicant should state that he will appear for an interview at the specified time. If the circumstances are such as to make it possible, it is advisable for the applicant to offer to call for an interview, even when this has not been stated as a requirement. Such an offer indicates confidence on the part of the applicant and is likely to produce a favorable impression. It is best to put this offer in the form of a request for an appointment. If your schedule will permit, say, "I shall be glad to call at any time that is convenient to you." If you have only certain hours free for an appointment, state specifically what those hours are. Say, for example, "I shall be glad to call any day this week between the hours of eleven and twelve." In every case, give your correct address and telephone number.

67. Some Miscellaneous Matters of Importance in the Letter of Application

The appearance of the letter, important in all communications, is nowhere more important than in the letter of application. This letter is in the fullest sense of the term a personal representative and as such merits the most careful attention of the applicant. Any evidence of carelessness in such a letter will usually prove fatal, for the person addressed is bound to feel that anyone who is careless in a matter so vital to himself as is a letter of application is more than apt to be careless in matters of consequence to his employer. The applicant who seeks a position involving some letter writing cannot afford to commit

a single error in his letter. Even if he will not be required to write letters in his new position, any mistake in his application will usually count against him.

What is the proper form of the letter of application? What stationery should be used? Should the letter be penwritten or typewritten? These are perennial questions. The general form of the letter of application is the same as that of any other business letter. It should have all of the six parts: heading, introductory address, salutation, body, complimentary close, and signature. These parts should be properly placed and proportioned. The letter should be written on regular business stationery, preferably on a full sheet. Should this sheet have a letter-head? Yes, if you have a letter-head of your own or if you are at present employed by a firm using a letter-head and your position gives you the right to use it. But blank sheets are used very often for applications, even by those who might use a letter-head. Among the many letters written in response to advertisements the use of a letter-head is the exception rather than the rule. Should the letter be penned or typed? There has been much controversy over this point. For a time the penned letter was favored, and by some people it still is favored, on the ground that it is more distinctively personal and that the penmanship reveals more clearly than the words themselves the chief characteristics of the writer. But the general use of the typewriter for all other business letters has had its influence on the letter of application. The prevailing view now seems to be that the letter should be typed unless for some special reason the person's handwriting is to be a determining factor. When this is the case, applicants are usually directed to "apply in own handwriting." The use of this phrase in certain advertisements implies that the typed letter is now the rule and that the penned letter is the exception. A letter written in lead pencil gets little or no attention.

The applicant who applies on his own initiative should always include a stamped self-addressed envelope. There can be no harm in making this a general rule, even in

applications written in response to advertisements. It is a small matter to either party, but often it is the small matters which are the determining ones.

68. Some Errors Common in Applications

Correct use of language is especially important in the letter of application. The man whom you are addressing may not use the mother tongue with unfailing accuracy. But it does not follow that he will therefore pardon your errors. If you misspell his name, the chances are all against you from the start. If your letter is missent on account of a misspelled or incomplete address, your chances are materially reduced. Above all things, don't forget to sign your letter. Stenographers who have been used to writing letters but not to signing them need especially to beware of this gross error. The reaction to such an error is not always so mild as that indicated in this particular reply: "I have your unsigned letter of December 15th in which you fortunately enclose a self-addressed envelope. I know of no possible opening here for which you would be fitted."

Study of numerous applications reveals certain recurring errors in the use of language. In the sentence "May I be considered as an applicant?" the word *as* is entirely superfluous. The question mark is an essential part of this sentence, but it is omitted in many letters. "I saw your add in The Lincoln State Journal" contains several errors. You may abbreviate "advertisement" to "ad." but never to "add." Prefer the complete form. Indicate the title of a publication by underscoring once or by typing in capital letters. In writing the titles of daily newspapers the article *the* is not capitalized. Furthermore, the article and the name of the city are not italicized as part of the title. The sentence above should be written "I saw your advertisement in the *Lincoln State Journal*." In the statement of qualifications ludicrous sentences such as these are common: "I have had 15 years' experience in shoes." "For practical experience I was raised on a farm." In introducing references the following awkward repetition occurs frequently: "For references I refer you

to the following persons." Say rather "My references are" or "I refer you to."

Remember that correctness in the use of language is important whether the position for which you are applying is large or small.

69. The Follow-up Application

If your application gets no reply within a reasonable time, it is permissible and often wise to write a second letter, referring to the first and expressing a continued interest in the position. Such a letter is especially appropriate when the position under consideration is one of major importance, for such positions are not often filled immediately. If it is skilfully written, the follow-up letter can be made to turn a delayed decision in your favor. The following letter is an example of a follow-up application:

G. H. Tanner Investment Co.,
136 Wall Street,
New York, New York.

Gentlemen:

On January 14th I wrote you an application for the position you offered in the January number of *Success*. I have not yet received an answer. Possibly my letter is on file awaiting further consideration; possibly it has not reached you.

I am very much interested in the position of correspondence supervisor and sales writer which you offer. I have a successful record as a letter writer, supervisor, and critic and I am looking for a wider field than is at present afforded by the Bradford-White Company of Chicago, with which I am now connected. For that reason, when I read your advertisement and acquainted myself with your desire for an aggressive, versatile letter writer and supervisor, I felt that the opportunity your company offered was knocking at my door. You are looking for action. I can supply it.

I have a university education. I specialized in economics and commerce. I have also had thorough training in English. During my years of college and since graduation, letter writing has been my business and vocation. I have handled advertising and have written sales copy for national advertisers and prominent agencies. During the last five years I have analyzed, investigated, studied, and applied business English and salesmanship.

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I am determined to enjoy this vocational campaign until judgment day.

I enclose the names of companies and gentlemen who can tell you of the individuality, distinction, and power of my sales work and letter writing. I enclose also a copy of my first application, written January 14th.

I am sure that I can quickly prove to be the capable writer of high-power investment sales letters for approved oil issues, leases, industrials, and general investments that you are looking for.

May I call for an interview next Monday morning at 10 o'clock?

Very truly yours,

70. The Applicant's Letter to His Reference

Before you use any man's name as a reference you should secure his permission to do so. This matter of courtesy should not be overlooked. Besides the courtesy involved, there is the practical matter of insuring a favorable response when the reference is addressed by your prospective employer. It is especially important that you should secure permission from your present employer to use his name as a reference. If his first intimation that you are endeavoring to find another position comes from outside sources, you are liable to get into unpleasant complications. You may, of course, secure the general permission of certain persons to use their names at any time when you wish to apply for a new position. But as a rule it is preferable to secure special permission covering a specific case.

In your letter requesting this permission state the facts concisely and clearly. Indicate what you are doing now, what position you are going to apply for, and why you want to make the change. Indicate how the person addressed can assist you in attaining your object and express appreciation of any assistance which he may give you. Enclose a stamped self-addressed envelope for reply. The proper tone of such a letter depends upon your previous relations with the person addressed, the length of time during which you have known him and the degree of

intimacy existing between you. The following request is phrased in formal language appropriate to the circumstances:

Professor James Nelson,
Springfield, Missouri.

My dear Sir:

In last Sunday's *News-Times* the Bancroft Service Agency offered a "present opportunity with future possibilities" to a young man who can qualify as an advertising manager. I understand that they want a high-grade man who knows the fundamentals of the advertising business, and who can assist in building and selling campaigns. I want just such a position, and believing that I can qualify, I want to make application for it.

Because I have taken with you some subjects dealing with the problems of this position, I should like very much to use your name as one of my references. I have taken your courses in marketing, salesmanship, and advertising. I have also completed three years' work in the College of Business Administration.

I believe my college courses have at least given me a working conception of the fundamentals of selling and writing and the power to treat business problems analytically. That should help me as an advertising man. My only practical experience has been book selling during two summer vacations, and the writing of sales letters and copy for the Lincoln Letter Company. This experience is not a great deal, of course, but I believe it has made me more self-confident and has given me the opportunity to try myself out.

May I use your name in this connection?

Very respectfully yours,

In the following letter the tone is more informal, implying a greater degree of intimacy between the applicant and his reference:

Mr. James Sawyer,
218 Court Street,
Boston, Mass.

Dear Mr. Sawyer:

I am going to apply for a position as advertising manager with the Beauchamp Department Store. They want a copy man

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who can set them in a profitable notch among their kind. You know more than any other man what I can do in the way of live copy and planning campaigns. I want to use your name as a trump reference.

You probably will not be asked to verify the facts that I am thirty, and college-bred, but they may want to inquire into the high-class agency position I now occupy, and they may want a clear understanding of what I mean by "I want broader expression for proved ability."

I shall not, of course, expect any eulogy, but I understand that the Beauchamp Company insists that every application made to them carry some recommendation of social standing and moral integrity. I should like to send my application sometime this week, and should therefore appreciate your permission within a few days.

Sincerely yours,

71. The Employer's Letter to a Reference

When an application is given serious consideration, the prospective employer will write to some or all of the persons whose names have been cited as references. Such a letter, sometimes called a reference letter, should begin by stating briefly the circumstances and then proceed to ask specific questions about the applicant. These questions should ordinarily be such as the person addressed can answer readily without spending much time in making a special investigation. They should also be such questions as the person addressed is peculiarly qualified to answer. For instance, if the applicant has included among his references the name of one of his school or college instructors it will be logical to direct to this person any questions concerning the applicant's educational qualifications. Likewise, any questions concerning practical experience will logically be directed to previous or present employers whom the applicant has cited. Sometimes the points on which information is desired are reduced to questionnaire form with blank spaces for the reference to fill out.

The requestor of such information should express his appreciation of the assistance expected and, if he is in a position to do so, he should volunteer to return the favor.

If the letter is written by one large business institution to another as a part of the routine of business between them, the expression of courtesy may be reduced to a minimum and the stamped self-addressed envelope may be omitted. But if the persons are not well known to each other, these matters of courtesy should not be disregarded. The following is an example of a letter from one employer to another asking about an applicant:

B. F. Seager Investment Co.,
Chicago, Illinois.

Gentlemen:

Mr. A. F. White has applied to us for a position as head accountant in our accounting department. He gave your name as a reference.

We wish to employ a man of sound academic training, wide business experience, and capacity for handling a force of twenty-two bookkeepers and accountants. He will be required to take over the supervision of all details and to meet production and accounting problems in a highly efficient manner.

Mr. White's letter impressed us, and he seems to be fairly well qualified for the position, although he has but little actual executive experience.

Will you tell us of his work with your company? We shall appreciate your opinion as to his initiative, thoroughness, and capacity for assuming responsibility.

Very truly yours,

72. The Letter of Recommendation

The letter written by a reference in response to an inquiry about an applicant is called a letter of recommendation. This name is applied even when the letter does not enthusiastically support the applicant for the position. If the inquiry has been specific and if the applicant has previously informed the reference about his plans and desires, the writer of the recommendation will have but little trouble in composing his letter. He should seek to render justice to all of the parties concerned. This means, first of all, that he will make specific statements of actual facts and will not indulge in those generalities which are easily

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applicable to everyone and therefore of value to no one. He should convey such information as he has gathered through his own first-hand observation and should exclude mere hearsay.

In expressing opinions about the applicant the writer should be moderate, realizing that a calm statement unadorned is much more effective than an effusive outburst displaying overenthusiasm or overanxiety. The writer of a recommendation needs to beware also of going farther than he intends to go and of allowing his enthusiasm to lead him into assuming responsibility for the applicant. On the other hand, he need not indulge in negative criticism except as this is necessary in the answering of specific questions. Ordinarily, what he cannot praise he can simply omit. The following is a letter of recommendation in which the writer seeks to render a real service to the prospective employer as well as to the applicant and at the same time keeps himself within the limits of safety and moderation:

Alabama Life Insurance Co.,
Birmingham, Alabama.

Gentlemen:

I am very glad to give you my opinion of Mr. Donald Seifield's character and qualifications, in answer to your inquiry of December 29, 1921.

Mr. Seifield was connected with our company during the year 1919-1920. During that time we considered him a very promising actuary. His qualities should appeal to a company of high standards.

He came to our company from an Iowa school in which he had charge of the science department. Because of his ability and because of his enthusiasm for the work, we believe he did well in giving up the school for the insurance field. His initiative and industry were entirely satisfactory, and after his first four months with us we promoted him from understudy to actuary, his salary becoming \$195 per month. Because the work was new to him, he worked under the supervision of our superintendent of agents during the remainder of the time he was with us.

We were sorry to lose him to the *Ætna* Life Insurance Company, which offered him a national field.

Concerning his personality, you might be interested in knowing that while with us he was an active leader in matters of civic improvement, especially in the building of the new city hospital, the Welfare Society, and the city zoning plan.

Very truly yours,

73. The Open Letter of Recommendation

Sometimes open or unsealed letters of recommendation are given to employees upon their departure from a position. Such a letter is addressed "To Whom it May Concern" and hence is necessarily more general in its statements about the applicant than is a letter addressed to a particular individual in response to his queries. But it should not be so general as to have no meaning or no value. If you cannot honestly make specific statements favorable to the applicant, it is better to turn down altogether his request for a recommendation. To give credentials to an unworthy person is distinctly wrong. The granting of recommendations liberally to all who ask, even in the absence of any first-hand knowledge, eventually reacts against the maker as well as against the bearer.

Because of their generalized statements, because they are sometimes forged, and most of all because employers have been so liberal in giving them to all who have asked, open letters of recommendation have lost much of their dignity and most of their value. The open letter is not regarded as anything like an adequate substitute for a real letter of recommendation, written for a special occasion, dealing with specific questions about the applicant in relation to a particular position, and sent directly to the prospective employer. The following is a typical example of the open letter of recommendation:

To Whom It May Concern:

This is to certify that Miss Jane McGrew was Associate Editor of the *Highway Bulletin*, of our State Department of Public Works, from January, 1918, to August, 1921. During this period her salary was twenty-eight dollars per week for the first year, and forty dollars per week thereafter. The increase in salary was due to her industry and ability. She left our department to enter the Columbia School of Journalism.

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Miss McGrew edited this bulletin during her last three years in the University of Nebraska and her capacity and results were entirely satisfactory. She had full charge of the editing, news writing, photographic work, advertising, mailing, and clerical details involved. In our service she gave real promise of developing into a newspaper woman of marked ability.

Her character, habits, and personality should qualify her for any field of journalism.

Very truly yours,

74. The Letter of Introduction

The letter of introduction used in business is simply a modification of the social note used to effect a meeting between two persons. Mr. A writes a letter to his friend Mr. B, introducing to him another friend of his, Mr. C. The implications are that the writer is thoroughly acquainted with both of the other parties, that A and B are close friends of long standing, and that A sees possibilities of mutual advantage for his two friends if they are brought together.

The writer of a letter of introduction usually states first of all who the bearer is and identifies him sufficiently for the occasion. He then indicates specifically what the bearer is after and concludes by suggesting that any courtesy shown the bearer will be appreciated by the writer. Such a letter contains an implied if not an expressed recommendation of the bearer's character. The letter is usually carried unsealed from the writer to the addressee. One form of the letter is illustrated in the following example:

Mr. A. L. Witte,
348 Fitz-Charles Building,
Chicago, Illinois.

Dear Sir:

This will introduce to you Mr. A. H. Lomer, who is paying your city a visit with a view to finding an acceptable position.

Mr. Lomer is at present assistant cashier of the First National Bank of this city. He has held this position for a number of years and has been very successful in his work. He feels now that he ought to establish connections with a larger banking institution. With the full knowledge and consent of his present

employers, he is seeking a position that offers greater possibilities for the future than does his present position.

I have known Mr. Lomer personally for about ten years. I have always found him to be a congenial co-worker, an efficient executive, and a thoroughly reliable man in every respect. I can assure you that any confidence which you repose in him will not be misplaced.

You will confer a great favor upon Mr. Lomer and upon me by directing him to some of the leading banks of your city and by giving him an introduction to the proper authorities. I shall greatly appreciate any assistance which you render him during his visit.

Very truly yours,

75. The Letter of Indorsement

The letter of indorsement is in part a letter of introduction and in part a letter of credit. By means of this letter the writer, A, introduces one of his friends, C, to another of his friends, B, for business purposes. The writer also vouches for the financial soundness of his friend C and assumes responsibility in case C should fail in any way to carry out his obligations toward B.

The object of the indorsement, like that of the introduction, is to bring together certain persons for certain business purposes on the assumption that the resulting transactions will be mutually profitable. The letter of indorsement goes a step farther than the letter of introduction and expressly assumes in a definite manner responsibilities which in the letter of introduction are only implied. Both of these letters lead to moral obligations and in addition the letter of indorsement often makes the writer legally responsible to a certain degree. The following is an example of a letter of indorsement:

Mr. J. M. Okelman, General Manager,
The Ready Supply Company,
1418 Wabash Avenue,
Chicago, Illinois.

My dear Mr. Okelman:

Mr. R. T. Hainey of this city will leave to-day for Chicago, where he intends to inspect and probably to purchase a stock of

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goods for his new auto supply department. I have taken the liberty of referring Mr. Hainey to you and of assuring him that you will render him valuable service if he will call on you.

Mr. Hainey has been in business in Haysville for twelve years. I have known him personally during most of that time. He is a man of irreproachable character and of sound business sense. His rating here is A-1 in every respect.

I have no hesitancy in assuring you that Mr. Hainey will be good for anything that he decides to purchase while he is in Chicago. His judgment in buying is always sound, and his note is as good as gold. If he needs any guarantee, I am perfectly willing to give it.

I shall regard as a personal favor any courtesy which you show Mr. Hainey during his visit.

Very truly yours,

It is proper to acknowledge the receipt of a letter of introduction or indorsement. This acknowledgment may be made in some such manner as is illustrated in the following letter:

Mr. M. M. Chatram,
Haysville, Indiana.

Dear Mr. Chatram:

Thank you for your letter of the 14th, concerning Mr. R. T. Hainey. Mr. Hainey called yesterday and we had a very pleasant visit. I discussed with him some of the leading supply houses of the city and gave him some suggestions for reaching them. If time permits, I shall be glad to accompany him on a tour of inspection.

Mr. Hainey appears to be a careful buyer and a man of good judgment. If he needs any assistance in securing the goods which he desires, I shall be glad to give it.

Yours truly,

CHAPTER VII

THE SALES LETTER

76. The Importance of the Sales Letter in Modern Business

The complexity of modern business makes necessary the utilization of a variety of means designed to create and to maintain favorable relations between seller and buyer. The use of the salesman as the personal representative of the seller has been, and to a large extent still is, the most effective of these means. The human element is so large a factor in business relations that it is highly improbable that a satisfactory substitute will ever be found for the living, breathing personality of the salesman or agent. But in recent years more and more effort has been expended by the salesman himself and by those whom he represents to supplement his work by the use of other means of communication. We have seen the amount of advertising space increased greatly within the past few years. Through the competitive efforts of advertisers to develop the most effective selling appeals advertising has become an art and a profession.

It was only recently that attention was seriously turned to the sales letter as a form of advertising and as an adjunct to the work of the personal representative. Enough has already been done to reveal the wonderful possibilities of this medium of communication between seller and buyer. The most spectacular evidence of these possibilities is the enormous growth of the American mail order houses, a growth based upon a contact with the customer that is secured and maintained almost exclusively through the medium of letters. But we need not go to the mail order

houses to find evidence of the value of the sales letter. There is now scarcely a business of any kind, large or small, which does not utilize to some extent this important medium. And the extent of its use is growing day by day, as more and more people become conscious of its advantages and its opportunities. From the standpoint of cost, which must be considered in all selling, the letter has a decided advantage over the salesman and even over other forms of advertising. Again, the letter goes directly to a certain individual and commands his attention in such a way as no other advertising can do. If it is prepared by an expert letter writer, the letter will not be lacking in the human element and may be superior to a mediocre salesman. In fact, the best sales letter writers have made so much progress in personalizing their letters that many salesmen find difficulty in keeping up with them.

77. The Rising Standards of the Sales Letter

A study of the principles of sales letter writing is important, in the first place, because of the wide and growing use of the sales letter as a type in every field of business. Such a study is important also because it is now being realized by all good correspondents that every business letter, no matter what its immediate purpose may be, is fundamentally and finally a sales letter. To answer a certain inquiry or to adjust a certain complaint is by no means the whole of the correspondent's task. He must do these things in such a way as to develop good will and to build up conditions favorable to future business. This means that he must observe in every letter the basic principles of the sales letter.

"Every letter a sales letter" has been adopted as a slogan by some firms. Recognition of this important idea is set forth very clearly by the writer of *Chalmers Letters*. He says: "In a sense all letters which go out from the factory are sales letters. We are in business to make sales. Sales are the result of confidence. We gain the confidence of people by treating them right; by being courteous to

them; by being accurate, straightforward, and honest in all our dealings. Not every person with whom we come in contact is a possible purchaser of a Chalmers car, but everyone is a possible influence toward the purchase of a car. You never know when a word dropped by someone will mean the making or the losing of a sale.

"We are able to employ help and pay salaries because people are willing to pay money for Chalmers cars. The salary of every person in this institution comes out of the sale of cars. If sales stop everything stops. The object of every communication which goes out of this factory, therefore, should be the gaining and holding of the confidence of the person to whom it is sent."

Every letter, including the so-called "routine" letter, which is sent out by the best firms of our day is designed in the light of the principles which underlie the sales letter. And what are these principles? Mr. C. R. Wiers, Chief Correspondent for Larkin and Company, writing in *Printer's Ink* under the title "Sales Letter Experiences with Two Million Customers" discusses nine principles. These principles are: enthusiasm, knowledge of the subject, knowledge of human nature, imagination, a spirit of helpfulness, the use of distinctive paper and printing, brevity, cheerfulness, and responsibility. In an article entitled "Are there Rules for Writing a Sales Letter?", printed in *System*, September, 1916, Mr. J. H. Picken lays down the following rules for the writer of sales letters:

1. Never assert in any way in your letter that which is debatable or untrue.
2. Never check or interrupt the steady flow of your prospect's thought.
3. Make your letters easy to read.
4. In every letter, give or imply all the facts about your proposition that your reader could possibly want to know.
5. Avoid confusing the prospect by presenting to him a series of propositions from which he must make a selection.
6. Make your letter portray advantages to be gained, instead of evils to be avoided.

78. Preliminary Preparation for the Writing of Sales Letters

The rules, tests, and principles set forth by men of practical experience all emphasize the fact that the successful writer of sales letters must have a thoroughgoing preparation for his task. He must, in the first place, know from beginning to end the product which he is attempting to sell. No one can be genuinely successful in selling any product unless he knows that product thoroughly. A superficial acquaintance with it or a smattering of facts about it may enable him to "get by" for a time, but a deep and intelligent understanding of the whole subject is the only basis upon which permanent success can be built. Such an understanding involves a knowledge of the processes of production from raw material to finished product, a knowledge of the processes of distribution and of the organized methods used in carrying them out, and a knowledge of the manner in which the product is consumed, that is, the uses to which it is finally put.

The correspondent who is thoroughly familiar with the processes of production and distribution as they are carried out in his own organization and in addition knows how these processes are carried out in other organizations has a sound foundation upon which to build a successful career as a sales letter writer. It is significant that those who have been engaged for some time in the process of manufacturing a product are found to be the best advertisers for that product. Their first-hand acquaintance with the article in the making gives them a wealth of the best kind of material to use in convincing others of its value. He who finds himself without this advantage should do his best to supply the deficiency. He should make a careful study of the product which he is to sell, using for this purpose all available sources of information. He will find the officers of his organization ready to assist him in getting access to these sources. Some companies, recognizing the importance of this matter, have prepared circulars and pamphlets containing such information about proc-

esses of manufacturing and of distribution as will be of most value to their correspondents.

In addition to a thorough knowledge of his product the sales letter writer should know as much as possible about his prospective customer. He should learn whatever he can about the particular individual whom he is to address. If this individual has had any previous dealings with the house through salesmen or through correspondence, the record of these dealings will furnish valuable information. If he is an entirely new and untried "prospect," information about him will be more difficult to obtain. In some cases it will be worth while to make inquiries from third parties about the prospective customer before addressing him. Some knowledge, at least, of his occupation and of his station in life is essential in determining what angle of approach and what kind of appeals should be used. For example, farmers as a class have certain dominant interests which differ somewhat from the dominant interests of retail grocers taken as a class. Again, women are, in general, susceptible to certain appeals which are ineffective with men.

The sales letter writer needs, in addition to all the information that he can get about the individual prospect, a broad understanding of human nature in general and of those characteristics which are common to mankind. He needs especially to know the fundamental principles of psychology and the typical modes of the mind's activities. Through much study and experiment it has been found that all deliberate human actions are preceded by certain mental states occurring in a certain definite order. Sales psychology recognizes four distinct parts in every sale. These parts or steps are attention, interest, desire, and action. The sales correspondent should utilize these and the other known principles of human psychology in building his letters. But he should avoid being led into the fallacy of constructing out of such principles a purely theoretical or ideal figure. His every letter should be addressed to a real flesh-and-blood human being.

79. The Adaptation of Material in the Sales Letter

A command of many facts about the product and about the prospect is of value only as these facts are skilfully utilized and adapted to particular purposes. Skilful utilization and adaptation of facts is possible only through a carefully prepared plan of action. If your letter is to accomplish anything, you as the writer must have in mind a definite object. Ask yourself, "What is the specific purpose of this letter?" and compel yourself to make a clear answer. You must also have some definite means of accomplishing the desired result. You must include everything that is necessary to accomplish your purpose and exclude everything else. This implies that you must select from among all available facts and ideas just exactly those which are suitable to the occasion before you. Given a certain specific purpose on your part, given a certain prospective reader with known needs and characteristics, just what facts and what arguments are you going to use to bring him around to the desired result?

If the addressee is a retail merchant in a small town and your specific purpose is to get him to send in a trial order for X. Y. Soap, you have a definite and a fairly typical sales problem. What does this retailer know about your product already? Has he ever bought anything from you? If so, what were the circumstances and what were the results? If he has never handled any of your goods himself, who is there in his neighborhood or of his acquaintance who has handled them? What brand does he sell? What will interest him most in trying your product? What inducement are you offering to get him to try it? These are some of the questions which call for specific answers before the letter is written.

Sales letters often fail even when they contain a sufficiency of facts and of arguments, because they present this material from the point of view of the writer instead of from the point of view of the reader. Study the following letter. Note how much emphasis is placed upon the interests and achievements of the seller and how completely

the reader is lost sight of. Avoid in your own letters any such excessive use of the "we attitude."

Mr. Alfred Barker,
Weston, Illinois.

Dear Sir:

We are delighted to announce that we have secured the district agency for Blank Cars and Trucks. We had a very hard time in securing this agency, for the company naturally prefers to have its district managers situated in larger cities. But after much effort we succeeded in convincing them that Riverdale is a coming town and that we shall be able to handle the district from this point as well as anybody could handle it anywhere.

We are receiving cars and trucks every day, and in a few days we shall have a complete line on display at our building at 1840 North Street. We shall have two men on hand at all times to show these cars and explain their merits.

We are under necessity of proving to the Blank Corporation that Riverdale is the proper place for the district agency. We shall do our best to make a good showing. We solicit your assistance.

Very truly yours,

Study also the following letter and note how the writer seeks to connect up with the interests and desires of the reader, keeping those of the seller in the background. This is a good example of the best type of modern sales letter, in which the "you attitude" is dominant:

Mr. M. M. Johnson,
Oakland, Nebraska.

Dear Sir:

You are aware, of course, that if you are to succeed in your chosen business or profession you must be posted on the affairs of the world. You must know what is going on in your own community. Hence you read your local paper. You must know what is going on in your particular field of activity. Hence you read your trade journals. You are well aware of the importance of these publications.

In these days of world-wide interests and activities it is no less important that you should be informed on international

affairs. Wherever you go you meet with world problems. Your associates talk about these problems. Your preacher discusses them from the pulpit. Your editor gives them daily attention. Your children bring them home from school.

Are you prepared to understand the daily discussions of these problems and to take your part in an intelligent manner? Can you answer the questions which your children ask? Doubtless you feel the need, as all of us do, of more thorough information on the important subjects of the day.

The enclosed card will show you the way to a better understanding and a better standing.

Very truly yours,

80. Getting the Reader's Attention and Holding It

The first task of the sales correspondent is to get the reader's attention. In order to do this he must open with something which is of special interest to his reader. If the sales letter is sent in reply to an inquiry, the introductory point of contact is already provided. When the sales letter is sent without any solicitation from the addressee, the writer must use great care in the selection of his introductory material. The opening statement should be one which not only attracts momentary attention to itself but which is of sufficient interest to stimulate the reader to finish the letter. In other words, the main problem lies not so much in arousing attention as in holding it.

In order to hold the reader's attention so that he will finish the letter, the writer must provide a logical connection between the opening statement and what follows. A spectacular display at the outset may attract momentary attention but is not to be recommended, for as soon as the reader sees that he has been tricked he will react so strongly as to resist the most carefully planned appeals. A current news item, and particularly a trade news item, often makes a good opening. But it should not be used unless it has some bearing upon the later contents of the letter. Likewise, a brief anecdote or joke can often be used with effect if it has a point which is applicable to the main topic under discussion. But avoid those stale and inapplicable jokes

which led a contributor to complain, "You are always sitting down on my jokes," and the editor to reply, "I should not do so if they had any point." Remember also that the value of any fact or idea as an opening remark in a letter lies not in the inherent importance or interest of that fact or idea taken by itself but entirely in its relationship to the discussion which it serves to introduce. The most startling fact or the most consequential idea in the world will not make a good introduction unless it is related in some logical way to the matter which follows. Appeals to the fundamental desires and motives of mankind remain the best points of contact and outlive many passing efforts to attract attention through odd and striking devices. The following points of contact have been used by different writers in opening their sales letters. These specimens indicate the wide range of possibilities in letter openings:

1. You naturally want to sell goods which will give your customers the greatest satisfaction and which will at the same time give you a good margin of profit.

2. How is the suit which we sold you a few days ago?

3. Remember that you cannot bequeath to your family your ability to produce.

4. You, the employer, are responsible for injuries occurring to your employees.

5. As the owner of a high-priced automobile, you are certainly interested in good automobile insurance.

6. People search out the dealer who handles *Excello Cord Tires*, no matter where he is.

7. The January issue of *System* contained a very interesting article on the Rapid Calculator, of which we are the exclusive agents in this city.

8. A book that is worth reading is worth keeping; and a book that is worth keeping is worth keeping well.

9. 'Mind your p's and q's.' This old saying may well be applied to clothes buying. Briefly, it means 'Mind your prices and qualities'.

10. Of course you intend to be financially independent some day and to make your family thoroughly comfortable.

81. The Sales Letter as Applied Argumentation

The purpose of every sales letter is to produce action of some kind on the part of the reader. The final object is to make the reader a satisfied purchaser. Particular letters may seek to produce a lesser action, such as the filling out of an information card, as a preliminary to the final result. A physical action, great or small, is based upon an act of will. Every act of will is, in turn, dependent upon mental conviction and aroused emotion. The sales letter falls very clearly into that class of writing known as argumentation, the purpose of which is to convince the mind and persuade to action. To be sure, the sales letter uses all forms and methods of writing. It makes extensive use of exposition, of description, and of narration. But all materials and all methods used in the sales letter are subordinated to the main purpose of producing a certain action. This desired action must be clearly before the sales letter writer at all times. It will determine the selection of material and the arrangement and proportion of parts in his letter. Is the product to be sold one which offers especial opportunity for appeals to feeling or is it one that is to be sold only on the basis of utility? Is the person addressed one who is more likely to be moved by emotional appeals than by logical reasoning? These are fundamental questions which the sales correspondent must answer in his own mind before he can hope to construct a letter which will be effective in stimulating the reader to the desired action.

82. The Appeal to Reason

The object of the sales letter is to produce action which will result in genuine and permanent satisfaction. Such action must be based upon thorough conviction, upon conclusions and decisions arrived at through sound processes of reasoning. The processes of reasoning are formulated, defined, and tested by the science of logic. The writer of sales letters should know the essential principles of this science and should know how to adapt and apply these principles in any given case.

The science of logic divides all reasoning processes into two kinds. There is first the deductive process, which proceeds from a general truth or law or principle to its applications in an individual case. Secondly, there is the inductive process, which proceeds from an observation of particular instances to the formulation of a general truth or law or principle. Deductive reasoning was so thoroughly studied and mastered by the ancient Greeks that little advance has been made in this subject since their day. The old Greek philosophers cast their reasoning into the form known as the syllogism. This form consists of three successive propositions known as the major premise, the minor premise, and the conclusion. The classical example of the syllogism is the following:

All men are mortal
Socrates is a man

Socrates is mortal

You will note in this example that the major premise asserts a general truth, a truth that applies to a whole class of beings, in this case men. The minor premise proceeds to bring a certain individual, in this case Socrates, within the class named in the major premise. The conclusion then follows with the assertion that since this individual is a member of the class, what is true of the class as a whole is also true of him as an individual.

You will note, also, that each of the three parts of the syllogism is a complete statement; it has both a subject and a predicate. This is absolutely essential. A mere phrase or dependent clause will not do. The predicate of the major premise, in the preceding example "are mortal," is the major term. The subject of the minor premise, in this case "Socrates," is the minor term. Besides these two terms, every sound syllogism must contain a third, called the middle term. In the example given the middle term is "man." The middle term occurs in both premises but does not occur in the conclusion, which is made up of

the subject of the minor premise and the predicate of the major premise. It may help you to compare the syllogistic form with the first axiom in geometry, "Things equal to the same thing are equal to each other." In the premises of the syllogism A and B are both related to C and in the conclusion A and B are related to each other. C as the standard of measurement or middle term drops out and does not appear in the conclusion.

The example which we have considered represents only the first mood of the first figure of the syllogism. All of its propositions are universal affirmatives, that is, they take the form All A is B. Besides this form there are three others: the universal negative, in the form No A is B, the particular affirmative, in the form Some A is B, and the particular negative, in the form Some A is not B. There are sixty-four possible combinations of these propositions, of which only a few give valid conclusions. But the form which we have considered is the one most commonly used in everyday reasoning.

83. Reasoning from the General to the Particular

The sales correspondent occasionally presents his argument in plain outline form, relying entirely upon its logical soundness to carry the reader through to the conclusion. Under special circumstances this may be a safe procedure, but ordinarily it is best to avoid laying bare the skeleton of one's argument. The logical basis must be there, but if your argument is to be read it will have to appear in somewhat more attractive garb than that of the formal brief. Sales letter writing is an art, and like all other arts it is based upon certain scientific principles. In the case of the sales letter the basic principles are those laid down in the science of logic. It must not be supposed, however, that a knowledge of these principles will of itself make a successful sales correspondent. Success in the art of letter writing depends upon a skilful use of these principles. Skilful use means the adaptation of general principles to the achievement of desired results in particular cases.

The process of reasoning from a general truth to the application of that truth in a particular case is one of the most common of the reasoning processes employed in everyday life. But it does not follow that the most effective way of presenting this process to the reader is by means of the complete syllogistic form. In the actual practice of advertisers and letter writers the syllogistic argument usually appears in a considerably abridged form. This abridged or condensed syllogism, called the enthymeme, nearly always contains the essence of the conclusion and of the minor premise. The general truth which is asserted in the major premise is often taken for granted or merely implied in the argument that is given. The parts of the argument which are expressed seldom show the rigid formality which characterizes the propositions of the complete syllogism. The complete syllogistic form is to be used rather as a standard in testing the soundness of arguments than as a mode of presenting them to readers. Some examples of everyday enthymemes and abridged arguments are given in the following list:

1. You should buy a Blank car, for there are a million of them in use.
2. Since it is over a hundred years old, the Blank Trust Company must be reliable.
3. Because we have the buying power of ten stores, we can offer you lower prices.
4. We undersell our competitors, for we are out of the high rent district.
5. The wide distribution of Blank's chocolates proves their value.
6. Since they raise the standard of living among working people, labor unions are beneficial to society.
7. You should be sure to visit our store this week, because we are having a special sale.
8. Lighton Kitchen Cabinets are good investments, for they keep housewives young and happy.
9. A Ford is the best car because it is the most serviceable.
10. If it isn't an Eastman it isn't a kodak.

84. Reasoning from the Particular to the General

The generalization which furnishes the starting point in the deductive process is itself the result of previous observation and previous processes of reasoning. How do we know that all men are mortal or that all the angles of a triangle are equal to two right angles? These assertions, which appear to us now as self-evident, have been arrived at through the use of inductive reasoning and through numerous verifications extending over a long period of time. The two generalizations which we have cited as examples are known as perfect generalizations because all of the observation and experience of mankind have revealed no exceptions to them.

Most of the generalizations with which we have to deal in practical everyday life do not have this perfect character. They are based upon incomplete data and the conclusion is made to cover much more ground than has actually been covered by investigation. Exceptions often escape notice and are sometimes deliberately ignored. Take, for example, the generalization that "All Blank products give satisfaction" or that "All Blank products are of superior quality." Besides the difficulty of defining *satisfaction* and *superior*, there is the difficulty, if not the impossibility, of examining every individual instance of the use of Blank products to determine whether or not they have given satisfaction or have possessed superior quality. Is it necessary that every case be examined? No. Such a requirement would exclude from practical use every instance of generalization. But it is necessary that a reasonable number of specific instances should be examined and that these instances should be typical and representative of the class as a whole in all essential respects.

What constitutes a reasonable number? What makes a typical case? These questions obviously cannot be answered by any formula; they must be answered in each particular case. A dozen fruit stands might constitute a reasonable number upon which to base conclusions concerning the retail fruit business in a certain city. On the other hand,

a dozen automobiles would furnish a very inadequate basis for drawing general conclusions concerning the predominant type of car in that city. If the investigator deliberately selects certain fruit stands or certain automobiles from any other point of view than that of getting fairly representative instances, his generalization will be worthless even though he has examined a large number of particular cases. In the following list are a few examples of reasoning from particular to general, taken from letters and advertisements:

1. In the finest homes you will find Linen Rugs. You will find them likewise in the best offices, hotels, clubs, and theaters. Linen Rugs are preferred by all persons who take pride in good appearance.

2. From the standpoint of quality you will find our products superior. From the standpoint of price you will find them most economical. From every point of view you will find our products desirable.

3. On the city pavement or on the country road, in the East or in the West, over the mountains or over the desert,—wherever you want to travel these tires will give you superior service.

4. Our new 1922 model has a larger radiator. It has non-glare lenses. It has disc steel wheels. It has unusually long springs. It has an improved clutch. It has a hinged windshield. In every feature this new model is superior to older cars.

5. If you want clothes for work, visit our store. If you want clothes for play, see our new stock. If you want clothes for dress, you will find our line complete. Whatever your clothes needs may be, we can supply you to your complete satisfaction.

85. Reasoning from Cause to Effect

The whole structure of modern scientific thought is built upon a fundamental belief in causal relationship. Take away this conviction that the phenomena of life are causally connected, and the whole structure, not alone of science but of business as well, would crumble. For modern business has been profoundly influenced by modern science and is itself becoming more and more scientific all the time. The science of economics, which underlies all commercial

activity, is based fundamentally upon this belief in causal relationship. The business correspondent who is seeking to influence people in such a way as to increase commercial activity should know something about the fundamental and universal principles of causal connection.

In reasoning by causal relation we may begin with the cause, or supposed cause, and proceed to the effect, or probable effect. Thus from the presence of black clouds in the sky we are led to expect a storm, or from the harvesting of an unusually large crop of wheat we are led to expect a drop in the price. The sales correspondent can use this method of reasoning to show his prospective customer how present action on his part will result in future satisfaction and profit. He should present these results with such vividness as to stimulate the reader's imagination and to make him feel as if he had already taken the suggested step and were even now experiencing the beneficial effects resulting from it. He should make the reader feel as if he were already enjoying the pleasures of the new car or as if he were already experiencing the satisfaction of adequate insurance protection for his family.

The practical everyday uses of this mode of reasoning are many. What kind of preparation should I seek? Should I apply for this position or that? Should I buy this product or that? Should I buy now or wait until later in the season? These are daily questions. The answers to these and to countless other questions are dependent upon the probable effects which will follow from certain courses of action. He will be most successful who can most clearly visualize those effects in advance and who will act accordingly. What we call vision, in business or elsewhere, consists largely of this ability to trace causally the connection between present actions and their later results.

Following are some examples of reasoning from cause to effect, taken from sales letters:

1. Equip your car with these springs and driving becomes a joy. The road will be smoother, the car more comfortable, and the scenery more beautiful.

2. The use of different colors for different printed forms is the "Signal System" of business. This system of color-classification insures increased accuracy, time saved, work made lighter, all through your factory or office or store.

3. When it becomes known that you can do more and better work than those about you, your advancement is assured.

4. To dance well is to be admired.

5. Natural beauty demands sound sleep and thorough relaxation. In order to get sound sleep you must have a good mattress. The Ostermoor will provide this necessity and will produce natural beauty.

6. Use Adam's Gum regularly after rising—it takes away the bad taste in your mouth; after every meal—it aids digestion; and before retiring—it clears the teeth, moistens the mouth and throat.

7. When I began taking your course I was making fifty dollars a month. Now I make \$150.

8. Do your washing at home with the X. Y. Z. Electric Laundry—your clothes are not mingled with the soiled wearing apparel of strangers; they are not exposed to contagion; no clothes disappear; they wear much longer.

9. Put America into your workers' hearts. When every factory flies the Flag *every day*, there will be fewer strikes, less unrest, and more production.

10. The sweeping success of our line this Spring has led us to put in force another of the revolutionary innovations for which the Majestic System has become noted. Instead of treating Summer sales as a kind of stop-gap between Spring and Fall, as has been customary, we shall devote to them a regular season, and show a complete, new and special Summer line.

In the following sales letter cause to effect reasoning constitutes the fundamental basis of construction:

Mr. R. M. Trench,
Ames, Iowa.

Dear Sir:

We are willing now to confess that when we opened our branch store in Ames last September we were just a little bit doubtful concerning its future. But six months of excellent trade has assured us that Ames is the very best place that we could have chosen.

As the result of the congenial reception extended to us by the buying public of Ames and vicinity during this initial period we are going to enlarge and improve our Ames store. We shall continue to handle the staple lines upon which our reputation is based. We shall continue to live up to our slogan, "Quality first and always."

In order to care for our ever-increasing crowds of customers we must have more room. We have already let the contract for an addition which will nearly double our present floor space. Construction will be started at once, and if our present plans work out we shall invite you to our special Fourth of July opening.

Meanwhile we shall be here to render you the best service and the best goods.

Quality first and always.

Very truly yours,

86. Reasoning from Effect to Cause

Reasoning by causal relation often proceeds from effect to cause. Given a known fact, we seek to find the unknown causes which have produced it. In a period of general business depression everyone is eagerly searching for the causes which have brought about that condition. Business is slow. That is a generally recognized fact. How do you account for it? Is this dullness due to a decrease in foreign trade or is it due to decreased buying at home? Why are people buying less now than they did last year? Is money less plentiful? How can that be? What has become of the money? And so the mind proceeds, step by step, seeking for the fact or combination of facts which will furnish a satisfactory explanation of the present and undesirable condition.

Or it may be that the reports of a particular company show that business has fallen off steadily for a year in a certain district. This is the known fact. What is the explanation? What is the cause of this decline? Expert investigators may be set at the task of tracing back to its cause the serious falling off revealed by the records. In practical instances such as these the interest is, of course,

not confined to the discovery of the cause. The real purpose of discovering the cause is to remove it and thus by remedying the trouble at its source to change the consequent effects from undesirable to desirable.

The sales correspondent can often use advantageously this mode of reasoning from effect to cause. The following are some examples showing how this mode of reasoning has been used in actual sales letters:

1. Joseph B. Morton, well-known business man of Portland, Maine, says he feels twenty years younger, can now eat three square meals a day, and has gained sixteen pounds, thanks to Lacotan.

2. Doctors know that many annoying ills result from drinking coffee—and that such troubles usually disappear after a change to Instant Postum.

3. Themes! they're a nuisance to be sure; but inasmuch as you can't side-step 'em you might as well turn them out in the most creditable form possible. The only way to do this is to typewrite them. And the only typewriter for the purpose is Corona.

4. The special virtues and the special values attributed to the Hupmobile are the simple results of sound manufacturing policies.

5. A business man with large interests said to us recently: "Do you know that all Wall Street is reading the *Public Ledger*?" When asked why, he replied: "To get Evans' daily letter from Chicago. Bankers say it is the clearest and sanest financial letter that ever came out of the Middle West."

6. They talk yet of the change that came over Jones. Some said it was psychology. Some said it was a miracle. All said it was a mystery. When they asked Jones, he said it was liberation from slavery—slavery to the frying pan, and to grease and starch. Jones used to take his breakfast fried, and followed this with a heavy lunch. Now he has a breakfast on Grape-Nuts with good cream.

7. Several weeks ago we wrote you about the most interesting and valuable set of books that has ever been given away within our knowledge—and we have ourselves distributed more than half a million sets of standard works during the past ten years. You did not reply to our letter. Perhaps it never reached you. Perhaps we did not make it clear to you that the books were to be actually given away. Perhaps you felt as some did, that it

was too good to be true. Perhaps you did not understand that the books were new, standard, and well made.

8. Audiences are not only larger but more punctual on Paramount Nights. Principally for just one reason. If you don't make sure ahead of time you'll not get a seat. You won't get in. You'll get as far as the box office and stop for the second show.

9. What are you worth? What you are worth as an office assistant depends on your training; and the quality of your training depends largely on where you receive it. Thousands of our students will testify as to the merit of our courses.

10. The Stanley Bottle will not break because it is an all-steel bottle, with an actual vacuum enclosed between two walls of steel welded into a single unit of tremendous strength. There is no glass in it.

In the following sales letter, effect to cause reasoning constitutes the fundamental basis of construction:

Mr. K. O. Rummins,
Storm Center, Kansas.

Dear Sir:

A million dollars seems like quite a sum to most of us. To gather this sum in one-dollar payments is a task of no small proportions. We are proud to say that we have accomplished this task. To be more exact, we should say that the *Best Encyclopedia* has done it.

You are aware, of course, that no amount of salesmanship or advertising would take a book through fifteen editions if the book itself did not have distinctive and unusual merit. That's exactly what the *Best Encyclopedia* has. It is a boiled-down edition of all the best and most useful information contained in the big, many-volume encyclopedia that you see in the library. It is handy. You have in one volume a whole library of information. It is practical. You can find here the answers to numerous questions that arise every day. It is authoritative. You have in concise form the results of the labors of scores of experts. It is lasting. You have a well-bound volume that will last a lifetime.

The *Best Encyclopedia* has unusual merit. That is why thousands have already purchased it. Send the coupon today and get a copy for five days' examination.

Yours truly,

87. Reasoning from Examples

Experience in dealing with the human mind has proved conclusively that abstract truths are less attractive than specific examples illustrative of those truths. This generalization is based upon the universal experience of writers, teachers, advertisers, and all who have anything to do with conveying thought by means of language. Why is the abstract less attractive than the concrete? Many efforts to trace this known fact to its cause have proved that abstractions are less attractive to the mind than are specific examples because they are less clear. In other words, the mind likes best what it understands most clearly. Anyone can verify this for himself if he will look over his own interests.

This principle is of practical importance to the sales correspondent. He should supply himself with numerous specific instances which he can draw upon as occasion demands. In selecting these examples he should seek to get such as are interesting and readable and at the same time such as are fairly typical examples. The unusually striking or sensational instance may have its place, but it is never wise to use such an exceptional instance as if it were representative. If the case is an exception, do not be afraid to admit it. Persons of sense will not be misled by your use of an exceptional instance as if it were a typical one, but they will be led to react unfavorably to your whole effort as soon as they discover an attempt to deceive.

Sometimes you may mention briefly several examples, bringing out the same point. Such a series should be arranged in climactic order, that is, from least impressive to most impressive. But usually it is preferable to develop one example at some length and to make the fullest possible use of it. You may state your general principle or proposition first and then follow with the example. This is a thoroughly logical order. But because of the fact already noted that people generally prefer the concrete to the abstract it is usually best in sales letters to follow the psychological order, that is, to put the example first and

lead up to the general proposition as a conclusion. Some concrete examples and specific instances which have been used in sales letters are given in the following list:

1. Do you waste good stationery on a brief telephone memorandum? You can save many dollars a year by using our Memoranda Pads for all short-lived notes.

2. Piston rings require the best possible grade of metal. The fact that our iron is used by the leading manufacturers of piston rings is the best evidence of its superior qualities.

3. Over in Stamford there is a man who has smoked Blank Tobacco for sixty-six years. And he has no intention of forsaking his old favorite for a long time yet.

4. The good roads movement is as much alive as ever. Big building programs are under way in several states. Missouri has just appropriated sixty million dollars for good roads.

5. The picture shows one of the mountain springs which furnish the pure and sparkling water used in all of our Ale Products.

6. This new lamp has a thousand practical uses. It is just the thing for your sewing table or your sewing machine. It fastens on the back of your reading chair. It makes shaving a delight.

7. For that Birthday Cake or those Christmas Cookies you must have the best flour. On special occasions such as these you will naturally demand Superlative.

In the following letter the examples play an unusually conspicuous and important part:

Mr. L. R. Carrol,
Broadhurst, Ohio.

Dear Sir:

Momsen Multi-Color Bond will pay for itself many times over. It will increase the efficiency of your business. It will double the value of your records.

According to the Momsen Multi-Color plan, each class of correspondence has its own distinctive stationery. Your traveling salesmen have one color, your local agents another. Your western customers and your eastern customers are easily distinguished. Your large customers and your small customers are apparent at a glance. Your house memoranda are not confused

with your permanent records. Your prospects are made conspicuous. You don't have to go on a long search to find out where business is increasing and where it is decreasing.

The classification which we have given is only suggestive. The possibilities are unlimited. You can easily adapt the Mommensen Multi-Color plan to your own business. It is suitable for any kind of business, large or small.

A request will bring you some specimen sheets.

Yours truly,

88. Reasoning by Analogy

Another of the modes of reasoning used in everyday affairs is reasoning by analogy. Because this method is based upon the use of specific examples the term *analogy* is sometimes applied to any case in which examples occur. But this is a very loose use of the term. In its true form an analogy involves a more complex process than the simple use of an example to represent a general class or to illustrate a general law. In the simple use of examples we reason from the similarity between two things, whereas in using analogy we reason from the similarity of the relations existing between things. A true analogy thus consists of a comparison not simply between two objects or facts but between two sets of relationships. Reduced to a formula, this comparison would appear as follows: A is to B as C is to D. Clothe this formula in more concrete terms and you get such an analogy as this: Learning is to the mind what light is to the eye.

The method of analogy is used in every field of human thought. Important discoveries in science have had their beginnings in an application of this method of reasoning. Scientific theories and hypotheses are often suggested by analogy. Long before the germ theory of disease had become an established fact Tyndall reasoned as follows concerning it: "As a planted acorn gives birth to an oak competent to produce a whole crop of acorns, each gifted with the power of reproducing the parent tree, and as thus from a single seedling a whole forest may spring, so, it is contended, these epidemic diseases literally plant their

seeds, grow, and shake abroad new germs, which, meeting in the human body their proper food and temperature, finally take possession of whole populations.”

Public speakers frequently use analogies to make their ideas more concrete and effective. Lincoln was especially fond of this method. His response to those who were criticizing the government during the Civil War illustrates admirably his effective use of analogy. He said: “I want you to suppose a case for a moment. Suppose that all the property you were worth was in gold, and you had put it in the hands of Blondin, the famous rope-walker, to carry across the Niagara Falls on a tight rope. Would you shake the rope while he was passing over it, or keep shouting to him, ‘Blondin, stoop a little more! Go a little faster!’ No, I am sure you would not. You would hold your breath as well as your tongue, and keep your hand off until he was safely over. Now, the government is in the same situation. It is carrying an immense weight across a stormy ocean. Untold treasures are in its hands. It is doing the best it can. Don’t badger it! Just keep still, and it will get you safely over.”

Advertisers and sales letter writers have discovered the method of analogy and are using it with great effect in their work. The following specimens, taken from actual letters and advertisements, suggest the great possibilities of reasoning by analogy in everyday writing:

1. A dictionary is like a thermometer; we believe it only when it agrees with our feelings.

2. Every grape in the purple bunch is an original. And there are no copies in the white stack of beautifully printed sheets, as it comes from the mimeograph; every impression is an original.

3. Just as bullets are scientifically gauged to fit a gun barrel, so are Eversharp Leads calibrated exactly to the unvarying size of the loading barrel and rifled tip of the Eversharp pencil.

4. Reserve oil lands are as important to a producing oil company as reserve troops are to an army.

5. When your shoe soles wear out, and leave a perfectly good pair of uppers, do you throw the shoes away? Indeed not. You

take them to a shoe-repair man and have him resole them. Why then do as the majority of tire-users do, waste the best part of the tire as soon as the tread is worn out?

6. Just as the flange on the wheels of the railroad train keeps it from running off the track, so the Waltham scientifically shaped guard pin keeps the escapement from going out of action.

7. What *scenery* is to the play *paper* is to printed matter. It is the background for every word you say; it creates the atmosphere, the state of mind, the mental impression of the audience.

8. China built a great wall to shut new ideas out of the country and withered within it. Any business that doesn't welcome economizing efficiencies is destined to follow suit.

9. Children were to the "old lady who lived in a shoe" as letters are to the average filing cabinet.

10. The eyes of your car are not efficient when out of focus.

The following letter is based fundamentally upon the method of analogy:

Mr. C. D. Promeus,
Lincoln, Nebraska.

Dear Sir:

Any old boat can get along pretty well in fair weather. Almost any business institution can sail smoothly on during periods of prosperity. But the seas must sometimes be rough; it is in the very nature of things.

Wise seamen employ a lookout to detect approaching storms. From his position of advantage the lookout sees first the dangers that are ahead. He sees also the opportunities to escape the rough seas. Wise business executives are making a similar use of lookouts. As trained accountants we have special facilities for seeing beyond the ordinary man's commercial horizon. We have the benefit of many resources which are not open to all. We have access to extensive business data and we have the means of interpreting these facts. We can reduce to tangible and practical form the facts that you need to know about your particular business.

We can help you to weather future storms by anticipating them and by preparing for them.

Very truly yours,

89. The Use of Testimony

In preceding sections we have been considering some of the everyday methods which are used in reasoning about facts. Through the use of these methods we arrive at conclusions which are based upon and derived from facts. We present these conclusions to others in an effort to convince them of certain truths and to persuade them to act in accordance with these truths. There are thus three parts in each argument: the original facts in the case, the reasoning processes applied to them, and the conclusions arrived at. Any or all of these parts may be strengthened by the support of testimony.

Legal usage distinguishes between witnesses as to facts and authorities as to principles. In looser everyday speech the word *authority* is used to mean any source of information, whether a person or a book, which is drawn upon for a verification of any fact. The authority most commonly drawn upon in sales letters is a previous user of the article which is being sold. Customer satisfaction is the aim of every standard selling organization. A satisfied customer is usually willing to testify as to his satisfaction. The sales correspondent will have little difficulty in gathering testimonials if the product is giving genuine service. Before he uses these testimonials publicly he should secure specific permission to do so. This is the courteous thing to do in every case, whether the quotation is to consist of a single sentence or of a whole letter.

Testimonial evidence is of little value unless it is specific. To say that "we are receiving hundreds of compliments every day on our new product" is not nearly so effective with most readers as would be a direct quotation of one of these compliments. In selecting from a mass of testimonials the particular ones to be used the correspondent must consider first, the reliability of the person quoted, and secondly, the acceptability of this authority from the reader's point of view. One good sentence from a person in his own community will have more effect upon the

ordinary reader than will pages of testimony from distant strangers.

One of the most striking recognitions of the value of testimonial evidence is found in the slogan "Ask the man who owns one." Some everyday uses of testimony are cited in the following list:

1. The Chalmers is well worth your inquiry, if you are not abreast of what it has been doing. Any Chalmers owner you may know will tell you so. Our dealer will gladly put you in possession of the facts, and if you like, will refer you to owners in your own locality. We are content to have you judge the car by what you learn from those who use it every day.

2. The U. S. Government Specifies "Horse-Shoe Tires or Equal."

3. When people like these say things like this, isn't it time for you to investigate Sherbow's Type Charts? Besides the following, remember I have 89 other endorsements equally strong.

4. Whether you choose a Single-Six or a Twin-Six Packard, it will serve you for many years, and through all that time from beginning to end, will serve you finely. Ask the man who owns one.

5. A United States Naval Officer says: "The engines on the C-5 are the most economical built. They have recently undergone some wonderful tests in Washington, and it was found that this type motor is almost impossible to wear out."

6. There is given here a list of the colleges and universities that have introduced *A Fiction Workshop*. Those starred have begun the use of the book since January 1, 1922.

7. After giving the Nash a thorough tryout in its service, Armour and Company evidenced its opinion of this truck recently when it added further to its Nash equipment.

8. This is Arthur T. Bolden. Mr. Bolden was telegraph operator for the Illinois Central Railroad for twenty years. He is fifty-eight years old. One day he read one of our advertisements and the possibilities of making money in the Auto Tire Surgery business. In a few weeks he had purchased and installed a Haywood outfit. A short time afterward he wrote us that his income in four months was as much as it had been in two and one-half years as telegraph operator.

9. This booklet of testimonials was printed primarily to reach the older man at a time when the stress of circumstances made it necessary that every one available should engage in some

useful endeavor. Because these letters carry a story which is told with such a ring of sincerity, we have thought it well to issue a third edition.

10. Herbert Hoover says that coffee is "a psychological necessity." Cafeteria Coffee is not only the cup that cheers, but the cup that nourishes too. It is a gastronomical necessity.

In the following letter testimonial evidence constitutes the chief element:

Professor A. D. Borrow.
University of California,
Berkeley, Calif.

My dear Sir:

You will infer from our persistence that we are more than usually desirous of having you examine a copy of our new edition of Mark's *College Latin*.

We have received so many favorable comments from instructors who are using this book that we have grown quite enthusiastic over it ourselves. Professor Kenes over at the University of Oregon calls it "an epoch-making book." Professor Palms of the University of Washington calls it "a masterpiece among Latin texts."

"It has created a greater interest in the subject of Latin than I have ever known before," says an instructor who has taught the subject for many years. "The results are the most satisfactory that I ever had," says another. Those who have used the book are uniform in their praise of its interest-arousing qualities.

As an aid to the instructor, the book has proved equally successful. "It is the most helpful teaching instrument I ever had in my hands," says one. "The direct and simple method which it follows makes it a genuine delight to use this book," says another.

You will find upon examination that these people are not guessing. They know the book and they know what it will do.

May we send you a copy for examination?

Yours truly,

90. The Use of Destructive Arguments

In the process of convincing the mind and persuading to action it is usually necessary not only to build up a

good positive case but also to overcome objections and to destroy opposing arguments. In formal debating this part of the argument is known as refutation and includes all efforts of the debater to overthrow or undermine the contentions of his opponent. The debater may challenge the facts which his opponent has cited, the conclusions which he has drawn from these facts, or the methods by which he has arrived at his conclusions.

The sales letter writer has no immediate opponent such as the debater has. But he doubtless has competitors who are presenting their arguments to his audience. He should familiarize himself with these arguments and when it is necessary should endeavor to counteract them. The ethics of good business correspondence does not sanction direct attacks upon competitors. It is distinctly discourteous to mention names or to insinuate that a competitor's integrity is in any degree questionable. But it is entirely legitimate to present arguments which are designed to overcome the influence of competitive arguments.

Most of the destructive arguments used in sales letters are designed to overcome objections in the mind of the reader. The greatest obstacle which the sales correspondent has to meet is the natural inertia which is common to mankind. The object of a sales letter is to produce action. Action requires the expenditure of effort. The expenditure of effort is ordinarily disagreeable. How can the sales correspondent overcome this natural inertia? He must present his product in such vivid terms as to arouse a desire sufficient to overcome the reader's natural disinclination to act. Persuasive methods are, as a rule, more apt to accomplish this result than are cold logical processes.

Numerous letters, circulars, and booklets have been issued within the past few years in an effort to overcome existing or supposed prejudices against certain goods, or certain institutions, or certain forms of organization. These publications are considered by those who issue them as part of the process of building good will. They are frequently viewed by others as propaganda. Whether one looks upon these efforts with favor or disfavor he must see that they

are essentially of the nature of refutation. He must see, also, that they are especially open to the dangers of negative suggestion, that is, of arousing in the reader's mind objections which he had never thought of before.

The following examples of destructive arguments have been drawn from actual letters and advertisements:

1. The builders of the Columbia Six are not content to build a car simply to satisfy the eye. They realize if customer satisfaction is to result that every underlying feature of design and manufacture must be right—particularly the support and final drive of the power mechanism.

2. The Loose Leaf Ledger was the first important bookkeeping innovation in a hundred years. At first deemed impractical, it long ago silenced all criticism by its efficient performance.

3. Neapolitan spaghetti was long considered inimitable. It had a world-wide fame. But Van Camp has excelled it, and immensely. And Italian connoisseurs concede it.

4. Monito Full-Size Socks do not "poke through" at the toes as other socks do, because the Monito Way of Knitting assures extra toe-room.

5. Use the Auto-Strop Razor. You don't have to take the razor apart nor even remove the blade. No parts to unscrew—nothing to take apart and reassemble.

6. For years the irresponsible tire dealer traded on the good nature of American motorists. Even to-day not one motorist in five is getting what he is entitled to in tires. Getting better tires means first of all going to the legitimate dealer—the man who sells the known article and does not attempt to substitute the unnamed or the unknown for the sake of more profits.

7. Investigate the reasons and you will find why Ivory Garters have neither metal nor pads.

8. The *News-Times* covers the local field at an hour when the majority of people have time to read, to digest what they read and decide what to buy.

9. Large sums are lost every year through the fraudulent alteration of checks. To most of the victims "it never happened before." It probably never happened to you; but don't let that put you off your guard. Make sure your checks are printed on fraud-proof paper.

10. A thirty-pound dreadnaught typewriter is not suited to your needs. Corona will do more for you than any other typewriter on the market.

The following letter is devoted chiefly to overcoming objections and opposing arguments:

Omaha Wholesale Drug Co.,
387 Adams Street,
Omaha, Nebraska.

Gentlemen:

As you know, there are a great many different kinds of tooth pastes on the market to-day and more of them are being sold than ever before. If you notice, they are all advertised on some one characteristic quality. That is, they either neutralize an acid mouth, or they prevent film from forming on the teeth. Others are sold for their antiseptic properties.

About a year ago some one suggested that a paste be made which would combine the good qualities of the most generally used tooth pastes. This we set out to do, and the result is our C-K-P brand. The name represents the first letter of each of the three "best sellers."

A trial order will convince you of its merits.

Very truly yours,

91. The Use of Persuasion

The methods of reasoning which we have been considering are all properly grouped under the head of conviction, for they all have to do with man's rational faculties. These methods represent the paths by means of which man arrives at his deliberate conclusions. They have been formulated through long observation and study of the manner in which the mind actually works. The particular methods which we have discussed in preceding sections may be called the mental paths of least resistance, for they are the most universally utilized means of reaching conclusions. Because they are the most well-worn mental paths, they are the ones for which the writer of sales letters will find most frequent use in his work.

Although man classifies himself as "the rational animal," he is by no means a rational being exclusively. His rational faculties play a part in determining his conduct but they do not control it absolutely. We all know much

better than we do. If we would all act, everywhere and always, in accordance with our most rational judgment, most of the world's problems would soon be solved. If action naturally and inevitably followed conviction, the sales correspondent's problem would be greatly simplified.

We must not forget that the real object of the sales letter is to produce action. Action that is to be genuinely and permanently satisfactory must be based upon intellectual conviction, that is, upon sound conclusions arrived at through logical processes of reasoning. But intellectual conviction in and of itself does not necessarily produce action. You may have proved conclusively in your sales letter that the product which you are trying to sell has superior qualities, that it is worth what it costs, and that it has never been found wanting by the many who have used it. You may have convinced your reader of the truth of these propositions. Does it therefore follow that he will send in his order?

The general experience of mankind shows that an individual's action rarely if ever results simply from his conviction of a general truth. What is it, then, that prompts a person to take a definite step? In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred action results from appeals to the individual's own immediate needs or desires, in other words, from appeals to his emotions. Before you can induce a man to take a certain step, to send in his order and to part with his money, you must arouse in him a desire. This desire must be strong enough to overcome first, his natural inertia, and secondly, all objections which come to his mind. A desire of such strength can be aroused only by relating the argument to him as an individual and by stressing the **YOU** element throughout the letter.

In order to write a successful sales letter you should know something about the particular reader whom you are addressing. But there are certain appeals which are almost sure to reach him if he is a normal human being. The most fundamental of all these is the appeal to the instinct of self-preservation. This instinct is now understood to include not only physical survival but also some

degree of advancement and progress such as every normal person desires. Next to his own personal survival and advancement, the normal man's greatest interest is in those closely related to him. These include first, those to whom he is related by blood, and secondly, those to whom he is bound by other ties. The normal man is also interested in the larger groups to which he belongs,—the community, the state, the nation, and the race.

A man's daily actions are determined very largely by the instincts of pride, fear, ownership, affection, curiosity, jealousy, sympathy, imitation, and ease. Each of these instincts has many phases and each will furnish the sales correspondent with many effective appeals which he can use in connection with his materials of conviction. The following examples drawn from actual advertisements and sales letters show how some emotional appeals have been used:

1. Ask for Diamond Crystal. Pure as the rustling breeze. Mild as the wafted scent of blossoms. White as the fleecy clouds that lazily drift by. That is Diamond Crystal Shaker Salt. Always flows freely.

2. There is a lingering charm in the chilly deliciousness of Ward's Orange-Crush and Lemon-Crush—a suggestion of fruit-laden groves in wonderful settings of sunshine and color.

3. The gift of your voice and smile is the best gift of all to your mother. It is a gift of thoughtfulness to her, and a tribute to her loving memory. If your mother is living and not with you, at this time, the telephone can deliver for you, here, there, and everywhere on this best of days that most priceless gift—your voice and smile.

4. Marmon 34. That exquisite something called style, which, like the grace of perfect breeding, everywhere persuasive and nowhere emphatic, makes itself felt by the skill with which it effaces itself, and masters us at last with a sense of indefinable completeness.

5. Every woman has a cherished dream of color effects and color harmonies in her home. Some get no further than the dream, because they think its realization is beyond the length of their purse. But the woman who discovers Congoleum Rugs makes her dream come true.

6. Those treasured kodak pictures of Father, Mother and Baby. Will they be bright and clear in years to come, or will time fade and yellow them?

7. Enchantment talcum powder is as soft as the twining rose, caressing as a south-blown breeze. Its fragrance hints of dew-wet flowers yielding sweet incense to the morning sun. What a charming San-Tox toiletry for the lady dainty who revels in scented soothment for her fair skin!

8. In the past the finest motor bodies have been the exclusive possession of those who could afford custom bodies built to individual order. Today *Lindividual* craftsmanship has extended this enjoyment to those who buy standard models of certain painstaking manufacturers. The result is that durable mechanism is now matched with long-lived beauty of appearance.

9. He was up over a saw, tightening a pulley. His foot slipped and kicked shut the exposed knife switch. The power was on! Whir-r-r—went the machinery, up flew his body around the pulley, and then down . . . the whizzing saw below . . . well, after that moment nothing any man on this earth could do would help the lifeless, mutilated body. Must we learn, from such tragic lessons, the danger, the constant deadly menace of the exposed knife switch?

10. Does music make you dream? Then treat yourself to an evening of beautiful dreams evoked by these four superlative masters of their instruments. Columbia Records will give you many beautiful concerts at home, sitting in comfort by your own fireside.

Some use of persuasion is necessary in every letter which is to succeed in producing action. On the other hand, it is usually unsafe to rely upon persuasion alone, since actions based entirely upon aroused feelings often fail to give permanent satisfaction. In order to secure the best results the sales letter should combine conviction and persuasion. The proper proportion of each will be determined in specific cases by the character of the reader and the nature of the subject. Some persons act more readily upon emotional appeals than do others. Some subjects naturally have more emotional content than do others. The following letter combines conviction and persuasion in proper proportions and in a skilful manner:

Mr. H. O. Bingleman,
Osage, Iowa.

Dear Mr. Bingleman:

Your request for information concerning the Institute Course was received and replied to some time ago. The other day we sent you a copy of our new booklet describing this course. Have you looked it over with care? Don't throw away this booklet as an ordinary advertisement. It is worth much to you.

If this very letter were from an attorney notifying you that a rich uncle had died and left you a hundred thousand dollars, you would take very good care of it. You would probably keep it under lock and key and would save it as a keepsake throughout your lifetime. Well, this letter may be made just as valuable to you as that imaginary one might be. And this one is real.

Are you earning five thousand dollars a year? Are you getting it? The hundred thousand which the rich uncle might have left you would make you five thousand a year. The ability and knowledge which the Institute Course will develop in you will lead you to a five thousand dollar income. And remember—the uncle is fictitious, but the Institute Course is actual.

This course has been designed for just such aspiring youths as you proved yourself to be when you wrote asking for information. It has been prepared by a group of experts, each one of whom is a successful leader in his own field. From the keen analyses of these men you learn the fundamental principles of modern industry. From their experiences you derive great profit through learning to avoid the pitfalls and to choose the right road. In other words, you get the *essentials* and you get them under the direct personal supervision of men who know the facts and know how to present them.

When you fill out the enclosed enrollment blank, you are making an investment in training and ability that will pay you increasing dividends throughout your life. Mail the enrollment blank to-day.

Yours very truly,

92. The Use of a Clincher

The whole sales letter is designed to produce a certain action which is desired by the writer and which will give real and lasting satisfaction to the reader, who by that action becomes the customer. It is logical, then, that the argument of the letter should terminate in a final plea of

such power as to compel the reader not only to decide favorably but actually to do the thing desired before he passes on to something else. The tendency to postpone action until some later time is common to all mankind. But postponement is often fatal to the object desired by the sales correspondent and he must make a special effort to prevent it. He must endeavor to get the reader to "do it now."

In order to get immediate action and thus to insure the accomplishment of his purpose the sales letter writer must present the desired action in clear and specific terms. He must make it easy for the reader to perform the action. A general reference to the advisability of an early reply or the dangers of delay is not apt to be very effective. Avoid especially such hackneyed generalizations as "The early bird catches the worm" and "A stitch in time saves nine." A good clincher must be related to a particular case and to a particular reader. Here is an example of a clincher of this type: "Remember, Mr. Blank, that in order to secure your share of these new tires at the special sale price of ten dollars your letter will have to reach our office by the night of Wednesday, July 20th. Drop your letter into the mail to-day before you leave the office." The combination of a special price inducement with a definite time limitation such as is illustrated in this example is one of the most effective known forms of clincher. This particular form is obviously not usable in every sales letter. But whatever form is used, it should be definite and precise to the highest possible degree.

Besides being made very specific, the desired action should be made as easy as possible. Every action, no matter how small, requires the expenditure of some effort. The postponement of action is simply a manifestation of the tendency, deeply rooted in all of us, to avoid exerting ourselves. The sales letter writer must deal with this terrible inertia which weighs a man down and keeps him from doing even those things which would be most beneficial to himself. In order to remove all barriers to action and to reduce to a minimum the exertion required of the

reader, sales correspondents have devised various methods. All of these methods are attempts to find an adequate substitute for the action of the salesman when at the close of his visit he offers his customer a pen and indicates on the sheet placed conveniently before him the proper place for his signature. Some of the devices which have proved successful are the stamped self-addressed envelope, the order blank containing special terms or other inducements, the coupon having a rebate value or giving the customer some special privilege, and the return postal card printed with items to check or blanks to fill out.

The "we attitude," dangerous at any point in the sales letter, is almost sure to prove fatal in the clincher. You cannot expect your reader to act because it will be profitable to you. If he acts at all it will be because he sees some possibility of advantage to himself. The moment he gets the idea that you are overly anxious to dispose of your goods, that moment his suspicions are aroused and your cause is lost. The good sales correspondent knows where to draw the line between the persuasive appeal which will arouse favorable action and the overdone exhortation which will cause an unfavorable reaction in the reader's mind and set up there such a barrier as no future appeals will ever be able to break down.

A negative suggestion is likewise peculiarly fatal when it occurs in the clincher. The smallest suggestion of doubt on the part of the writer concerning the worth of the product or its adaptability to the reader's needs will offset the whole preceding argument, no matter how well it has been constructed. It is best to avoid at all times such a closing expression as this: "If you are not in the market just now, please save this letter for future reference." The following positive clinchers have been taken from actual letters. They illustrate a variety of ways in which a sales letter can be closed, each one good in its proper place:

1. Send the enclosed card. Send no money. Send the card to-day. To-morrow may be too late.

2. Before you lay aside the enclosed price list, note especially the introductory offer on page 6.

3. The self-addressed envelope will make it easy for you to reply at once. Don't delay.

4. All you need to do is to mail the enclosed card. We'll do the rest.

5. Return the enclosed card before December 15 or you will miss this unusual opportunity.

6. The special trial package is all made up and ready to be sent to you as soon as we receive your request.

7. You need not bother with a letter. Simply sign the enclosed card and drop it in the mail. Do it now.

8. Detach and sign the coupon at the bottom of this letter. That is all that is needed to start you on the road to financial independence.

93. The Follow-up Series of Sales Letters

If the purpose aimed at is of much consequence either to the writer or to the reader it is not apt to be accomplished in a single letter. For this reason sales letters are almost always prepared in series. This makes necessary a logical plan for the series as a whole and a logical plan for each individual letter in the series. We face here the problem of a double unity. Each individual letter in the series must be a distinctive unit, complete within itself, and at the same time it must make a definite contribution to the larger unity of the series as a whole. Consider, for purposes of comparison, the paragraphs of a well written composition. Each paragraph has a definite unity of its own and at the same time constitutes one step in the development of the whole subject.

In order to prepare a follow-up series with distinctive unity one should know exactly how many letters the series is to contain. But this is very difficult to determine in advance, since it is the writer's purpose to get the reader to take the desired step at the earliest possible moment and thus to make unnecessary the use of any more letters on the same subject. The best that one can do is to make an estimate, based upon previous experience and upon a

general knowledge of conditions, of the number of letters likely to prove most effective and most worth while. Such an estimate must be based upon the average prospects of results from a large class of addressees. Hasty generalizations based upon two or three specific instances should be carefully avoided.

The nature of the product and the special purpose of the writer will influence the length of the series. A series which attempts to sell an automobile or a life insurance policy will naturally be longer than one which tries to sell a book or a magazine subscription. One of the best plans for laying out a series is that of making first an outline of the main selling points of the article and then building one letter around each of these points. This will give to each letter one central and outstanding idea and will insure that the series as a whole includes all of the genuinely essential arguments in favor of the product.

Each letter in a follow-up series should contain an interesting opening and a persuasive close which seeks to secure immediate action. Each letter should dovetail into the preceding and the following letters. To assist in this, references to previous letters in the series are permissible. But as a rule no reference should be made to later letters. Each succeeding letter should bring up to a climax all arguments previously presented and should close with a plea for action having all the appearance of being the final word in the whole matter.

The following series of two letters was sent by the Denison Manufacturing Company, of Framingham, Massachusetts, to a list of garage men. The second letter was sent two weeks after the first one.

Mr. John Garage,
Burger, New York.

Dear Sir:

You can probably count on your fingers the number of letters you receive in a day that have something of real value to tell you. We believe that system tags should interest you, however. They record the jobs you do and help you to base your charges upon the common-sense methods that are being used by other respectable garages.

Here are four tag classifications that cover practically every phase of garage work. We made the first tags used, and having studied garage requirements closely for years, we believe it would be difficult to obtain better tags than these.

OVERHAULING AND REPAIR TAG. This tag provides for a record of stock used and repair work done as well as number of hours involved.

STORAGE OR OVERNIGHT TAG. Practically all jobs required for transient service are covered by this tag. It's just the thing for such a purpose.

TIRE TAG. A small tag with ample room for all repairs that are usually made on a casing or on a tube. You will want a good supply of these.

STORAGE BATTERY TAGS. A chemically treated tag impervious to the action of acids. Provision has been made for all repairs and material that you will be likely to use in connection with storage batteries.

After you have examined the enclosed samples and looked over the cuts on the inside pages, fill in and mail the order blank to us. You might let us figure on reorders of tags you are now using.

Remember—if you mail your order today, you will benefit by any decline in our prices between the time of receiving your order and the time of shipping it. An immediate order carries complete protection.

Yours very truly,

Mr. John Garage,
Burger, New York.

Dear Sir:

Tagging systems as shown by the samples and letter that we sent you two weeks ago save you money and trouble. Just consider the advantages again:

YOU GET AN ACCURATE RECORD OF EACH JOB.

YOU HAVE A CHECK ON CASH RECEIPTS.

YOU SAVE THE COST OF BOOKKEEPING.

YOU HAVE A SURE MEANS OF IDENTIFYING CAR OWNERS.

To put in this system costs you but little. Send us the sample that fits your needs best, and prompt shipment will be made.

The enclosed card shows the address of our nearest branch office—our representative there will gladly give you quick, satisfactory service if you will write him.

There is a convenient order blank on the reverse side of this letter.

Yours very truly,

The following series of three letters was sent by the Federal Bond and Mortgage Company, of Detroit, to a prospective customer who had made an inquiry concerning their investment offerings. The letters were sent at intervals of one week.

Mr. M. H. Weseen,
1243 Station A,
Lincoln, Nebr.

Dear Sir:

You have ascertained, after reading our literature, that the first consideration and the one we consider the most important is the safety of your investment.

The first question you should ask about any investment that is brought to your consideration should be—"Is it safe?"—and if there is the slightest doubt don't invest in it. Choose only sound and safe investments such as good First Mortgage Real Estate Serial Bonds. Your money in them will surely, steadily, and safely build you a source of permanent income. They pay 6% return on every dollar. The securities we are offering you are made with this as our first consideration.

We believe no man can afford to risk his principal for the sake of an extra one or two per cent that may be promised with a risky investment. Doesn't your own judgment counsel you to take the safe investment?

We do know that the First Mortgage 6% Serial Real Estate bonds we are offering you are safe. A great many other people believe so, too, and their confidence is signified by the fact that they have invested in them and have found that they are exactly what we represent them to be. We believe that your investigation of these securities will lead you to have this confidence in them and we hope that we may be permitted to serve you.

Yours very truly,

Mr. M. H. Weseen,
1243 Station A,
Lincoln, Nebr.

Dear Sir:

The securities which we submitted to you the other day are being subscribed for very rapidly. We would therefore urge, if you are in the market at this time for an investment, that you send us your order or reservation at your earliest convenience.

These are particularly well secured offerings, paying the good interest rate of 6%.

These investments are free from the Normal Federal Income Tax up to 4%.

We have made a great many mortgages secured by property of this character and almost without exception they have exceeded our expectations. Bonds secured in this manner afford you a safe security for your money, give you a good return, and our service relieves you of all trouble as to details.

You have had the opportunity of reading our booklet and are now acquainted with the careful manner in which we safeguard our securities and the service we render.

We deal exclusively in conservative and safe investments and through their medium hope to obtain and retain you as one of our customers.

We will take pleasure in serving you and await your advice.

Yours very truly,

Mr. M. H. Weseen,
1243 Station A,
Lincoln, Nebr.

Dear Sir:

This is a very frank letter and I hope you will favor me by considering carefully what I have to say.

Our letters, written in response to your request, have not been answered. Apparently something has caused your interest to lessen in regard to the securities we submitted to you. This leaves us rather in the dark, not a very pleasant position. If the fault has been on our part, we want to overcome it. As we cannot discuss it personally, Mr. Weseen, we would like to have you write us frankly as to why our securities have not sold themselves to you. We believe they should, as they are the safest we can procure and the interest rate of 6 per cent. is good when one considers the high degree of safety.

It may be that you do consider these securities good and are waiting for funds with which to make your investment. If so, will you please advise us of this fact, and if possible, when you expect to be ready to consider an investment so that we may submit our offerings? If you will give us an idea of the conditions under which you make your investments, we can better serve you.

We will appreciate receiving this information and will consider it confidential.

We want to number you among our satisfied customers. Knowing our securities as we do, we believe you would be more than pleased with them.

Will you please use the enclosed stamped return envelope and write me as I have you—very frankly?

Cordially yours,

Experience has proved conclusively that a letter which is clear-cut and easily read gets the best results. The modern reader will not spend time in analyzing for himself the sales writer's proposition. *Printer's Ink Monthly* quotes a letter consisting of one long, single-spaced paragraph and tells us that the average of replies to this letter during a year was about three per cent. When this letter was reorganized and reduced in length, the replies jumped to fifty per cent. Following is the revised form of this letter:

DEAR SIR:

Your order for a Milwaukee Filing System was shipped on January 30. Will you be kind enough to let us know

1. Has it been received?
2. Is it in operation?
3. How do you like it?
4. Do you require any additional supplies?

If there is anything about the system you do not understand, please remember we are eager to help you.

CHAPTER VIII

BUSINESS REPORTS

94. The Importance of the Report in Modern Business

The tremendous growth of modern business in scope and complexity has made impossible the direct personal contact upon which earlier business was based. It is physically impossible for all those who are interested in the conduct of the affairs of a large business institution to meet in person for the purpose of settling by oral discussion matters of great consequence to them all. They must of necessity delegate powers and duties to certain individuals or groups. The officers, representatives, and committees of a large organization must have some means of bringing before their constituents a record of their activities and a formulation of their conclusions. To supply this vital need the business report has been developed. Besides furnishing a means of communication between members of an organization who cannot meet in person, the business report provides in available form a permanent record of various activities and transactions. Such a record may have great value and often serves a useful purpose long after the immediate occasion of the report has passed.

He who expects to take an active part in the world's affairs should know something of this modern form of business communication. He should know something of the various classes and types of business report, of the proper nature and content of each of these types, and of the principles upon which they are constructed. Anyone who enters the business world in these days is almost sure to be called upon before very long to present in the form of a report the history of some business activity or the con-

clusions resulting from some business experience. If he attains to any official position, he is apt to find the preparation of reports to be among his most important duties. As a specialist in any field of industry or commerce he will certainly have to prepare reports. As a committeeman it may fall to his lot to prepare and submit the findings of a committee. Even as a subordinate employee he may find himself obliged to make reports to his superiors in the organization. Should his experience be so unusual that he is never put under the necessity of preparing a formal report, he will certainly have to read some reports that have been prepared by others. Some acquaintance with the principles involved in the construction of reports will enable him to analyze more readily and to criticize more intelligently the reports which come to him for consideration.

In the face of the many practical, everyday uses of business reports it is surprising that the proper preparation of these reports has up to this time received scarcely any attention. The business letter has been treated in a number of books which have appeared during the past few years, but thus far there appears to be not a single book devoted to the business report. It is true that the business letter is a more universally used form of communication than is the business report. It is natural that the letter should be discussed and developed earlier than the report. But the business report, although it is less frequent, is much more permanent than the usual business letter. The ordinary letter is read once and then put aside, whereas the report is usually given much more careful study by the reader and is almost always kept for future reference. The report, therefore, calls for a superior knowledge of the subject and a superior degree of skill in presentation. When we remember that it was only a few years ago that interest in the business letter was really aroused and when we note the great improvement in letters which has occurred during that brief period, we are led to anticipate that a similar awakening of interest and a similar improvement will take place in the business report

as soon as its real importance in modern business is discovered.

95. Periodic Reports

Most of the reports required in business are of a periodic nature, that is, they must be submitted by their makers at certain stated intervals. Many salesmen, foremen, inspectors, head clerks, and office managers are required to turn in reports every day. Weekly or monthly reports are required of many others, and sometimes of the same persons who submit daily reports. The annual report is perhaps the most common of all. In a few cases the biennial report is used.

However long or short the period of time covered by the report, the fundamental principles of its construction are the same. The report is an accurate record of certain activities during that period. The chronological order is the most natural one and is the order most often used in periodic reports. If he follows the time order, the reporter's task in presenting his material is relatively simple. He needs first of all to divide the whole period into convenient time units. If the report covers only a single day, perhaps a division into two parts, forenoon and afternoon, will be sufficient. In some instances, such as a report covering the operation of a power plant or a central telephone station, the time unit may be a single hour. If, on the other hand, the report deals with activities extending over a whole year, the unit may range all the way from a single day to a half year, depending upon the amount of detail which is necessary or desirable.

The chronological order, valuable as it is in furnishing a simple and natural organization of material, has its shortcomings. In the actual world of experience things seldom happen in exactly that logical order in which man likes to arrange them for his own consideration and study or for the most effective presentation to other men. In a strictly chronological report the matter of greatest significance may be obscured by a mass of detail. Something can be done to avoid this obscurity by the use of devices such as sub-

headings or marginal notes which call special attention to the points of most consequence. The best periodic report is that which, although based in its general plan upon a series of time units, presents the material within each of these units in the most logical and effective manner. A combination of the logical order and the chronological order furnishes the best basis upon which to organize the material for a periodic report.

96. Report Forms

Many periodic reports are submitted on forms made up especially for this purpose. Such forms are used chiefly in reports covering smaller units of time. Daily and weekly forms are rather common; monthly form reports are sometimes used. The reporter's task in such cases is simply to supply the specific information that is asked for. He must fill in each blank with care and accuracy. A space for additional remarks is often provided. This gives the reporter an opportunity to reveal his initiative and his interest in his work. These special remarks and suggestions may often be as important, both to the reporter and to his employer, as the formal data which the report contains. Employers are constantly looking for men of initiative and judgment. Employees who display these qualities even in routine work stand a good chance of recognition and promotion.

Some periodic business reports are presented entirely in figures, as for instance the report of the cashier or the treasurer. Such reports follow certain prescribed forms, which vary somewhat with the nature of the business. Companies classified as public utilities are required to submit periodic reports to a state Board or Commission. The forms for such reports are usually prescribed by law. Thus, in one state gas and electric companies are required to submit periodic reports under the following heads: assets; liabilities; operating revenues, gas; operating expenses, gas; operating revenues, electric; operating expenses, electric; income statement; profit and loss account. **Bank** cashiers are required by law to present and to pub-

lish periodic reports containing certain specified information. Income tax reports and many others must be submitted on specially prepared forms.

97. The President's Report

The reports of higher officials usually require the maker to devise his own form of presentation. In planning his report he may find guidance in preceding reports issued from the same office or in reports issued by other officials for similar purposes. Certain modes of presentation naturally attach themselves to certain types of reports and become more and more firmly fixed as time goes on. Among the most formal and complete of periodic reports are those presented by corporation presidents to annual meetings of stockholders. Often these reports are printed for distribution to the stockholders and sometimes for distribution to the public. Such reports serve the double purpose of conveying valuable information to the persons immediately interested in the welfare of an enterprise and of placing before the general public an attractive and effective form of advertising.

Among the corporations which have utilized this medium are the General Electric Company, the American Radiator Company, and Swift and Company. All of these companies have developed their annual reports into attractive and interesting booklets. Let us consider as an example of this type of report the 1921 Year Book of Swift and Company. It opens with the address of Mr. Louis F. Swift, President of Swift and Company, delivered to the shareholders at their thirty-sixth annual meeting, held on January 5, 1921. President Swift's address covers eighteen main topics. The rest of the report covers twenty-two main topics, making a total of forty. These topics are indicated by headings centered on the page, printed in red ink in sixteen-point type. Subtopics are indicated by marginal notes printed in black ink in twelve-point type. Ten statistical charts and thirteen actual photographs are included at various points in the discussion. The following outline shows the contents of this report:

SWIFT AND COMPANY 1921 YEAR BOOK

I. President's address

- A. Introduction
 - 1. Exceptional business year
 - 2. Inventories on marketable basis
 - 3. Prices warrant increased meat consumption
- B. Foreign trade
 - 1. Foreign exchange
- C. Earnings, dividends, and surplus
- D. Number of shareholders
 - 1. Employees invested in stock
 - 2. Stock savings plan continued
- E. Sales
- F. Reducing overhead
- G. Live stock receipts and prices
 - 1. Decline in receipts
 - 2. Decline in prices
- H. Beef prices
 - 1. By-product values declined
 - 2. Average beef prices
- I. Disposing of side lines
 - 1. The Supreme Court decree
- J. Real estate and improvements
- K. Educational advertising
- L. Institute of American Meat Packers
- M. Proposed legislation
- N. Wages
- O. Relations with employees
- P. Prospects
- Q. Shareholders should use our products

II. Aspects of the business

- A. Directors
- B. Officers
- C. Balance sheet
- D. Live stock prices and receipts
 - 1. Live stock prices
 - a. Average yearly prices
 - b. Average monthly prices
 - c. Price declines
 - d. Demand falls off
 - e. By-product values decline
 - 2. Decreased production of live stock
 - a. Cattle receipts
 - b. Hog receipts
 - c. Sheep receipts

E. Fluctuation in live stock prices

1. Cause of price fluctuations
2. Statistical investigation under way
3. Serious for producer and packer

F. Cattle and beef figures

1. Cattle costs and returns
2. Weekly profits and losses
3. Beef distribution at wholesale
 - a. Wholesale beef cuts
 - b. Wholesale prices and proportions
4. Retail beef cuts
 - a. Weights and prices
 - b. Why prices vary
5. Relation of retail to wholesale prices

G. Sheep and lamb results

1. Costs and returns
2. Spread between prices
3. New Zealand lambs
 - a. Why lambs were imported
 - b. Market disturbance avoided
 - c. Costs and proceeds of imported lamb
 - d. Lambs in storage

H. Hog prices and pork prices

1. Hog types
2. Pork yields
3. Effect of shrinkage
4. Hog price range
5. Price variations on pork cuts
6. Demand influences prices
7. Pork products sold under cost
8. Expense of preparing meats
9. Bacon and ham costs
10. Reasons for price variations

I. Cooperation in the live stock and meat packing industry

1. Live stock production
2. Efforts in cooperation
3. Preventable losses
4. Humane handling of live stock
5. Meat consumption encouraged
6. "Eat more lamb" campaign

J. Our produce business

1. Methods of handling
2. Close to production areas
3. Careful service

K. By-products

1. Returns included in meat results
2. Effect of by-product values on profits
3. Decline in by-product values in 1920
4. Effect on cattle and beef prices
5. Effect on sheep and lamb prices

L. Facilities for distribution

1. Essentials of meat distribution
2. Retail dealer contact
3. Branch houses
4. Car routes
5. Refrigerator cars
6. Efficiency of distributing service

M. Cold storage

1. Importance of refrigeration
2. Chilling *vs.* freezing
3. Temperatures of fresh meats
4. Temperatures of other commodities
5. Necessity and advantage of cold storage
6. Quality of storage products
7. Cold storage business not a monopoly
8. Storage for regular trade only

N. Effect of packers' operations on prices

1. Expense and profit per dollar of sales
2. Raw materials per dollar of sales
3. Packers' expense and profit small

O. The Supreme Court "Consent Decree"

1. Provisions of decree
2. Basis of decree
3. Decree a voluntary agreement
4. Produce not involved
5. Difficulty of stock yards disposal
6. Method of disposal still undecided
7. Our efforts sincere
8. Institute of American Meat Packers members

P. Relations with employees

1. Industrial relations department
2. Developing executives
3. Handling of men improved
4. Continuation school
5. Other activities
6. Employees' organizations
7. Employees' Benefit Association

98. The Executive Council's Report

In some instances the task of summarizing all of the various activities of a large organization during the preceding year is put into the hands of an executive committee or council, sometimes called a board of directors or governors. This occurs more frequently in educational, fraternal, and civic bodies than in organizations operated for financial profit. But the task of gathering the materials and the fundamental principles of their organization into a complete, clear, and accurate record are in all essentials the same whatever may be the purpose of the body to whom this record is presented. The annual report of the Executive Council of the American Federation of Labor furnishes one of the best examples of this type of report. The following outline shows the contents of the report submitted by this Council to the forty-first annual convention, which opened at Denver, Colorado, June 13, 1921:

A. F. OF L. EXECUTIVE COUNCIL REPORT, 1921

- I. Introduction: Greetings to officers and delegates
- II. Secretary Morrison's report
- III. Treasurer Tobin's report
- IV. Trustees' report on A. F. of L. building
- V. Labor's conference of February 23-24, 1921
- VI. Information and Speakers' Bureau
- VII. Wages and the cost of living
- VIII. Railroads
- IX. Courts, miners, labor
- X. Some recent important decisions prejudicial to labor organizations
- XI. International labor relations
- XII. America and the Soviets
- XIII. Organizing campaign iron and steel workers
- XIV. Disarmament
- XV. Education and educational systems
- XVI. Report on labor legislation
- XVII. Legislation in the states
- XVIII. Courts declare laws invalid
- XIX. Kansas Court of Industrial Relations
- XX. Constructive demands
- XXI. Labor and the organized farmers
- XXII. Chinese and Japanese exclusion and land laws

- XXIII. Convict labor and its effect on free labor
- XXIV. Representation in central bodies
- XXV. Amalgamation of central bodies of greater New York
- XXVI. Jurisdictional adjustments
- XXVII. Jurisdictional disagreements
- XXVIII. Oil field workers' controversy
- XXIX. Foundry employees controversy
- XXX. A. F. of L. publications
- XXXI. History, encyclopedia, reference book
- XXXII. American Federation of Labor Bureau of Co-operative Societies
- XXXIII. Food Distributing Department
- XXXIV. Personnel research foundation
- XXXV. A. F. of L. organizers
- XXXVI. Department of Labor
- XXXVII. Health insurance
- XXXVIII. William B. Wilson
- XXXIX. Convention cities
- XL. Non-Partisan political campaign
- XLI. Labor's Memorial Day, Labor Sunday, and Labor Day
- XLII. Labor's work for relief of suffering peoples
- XLIII. One big union
- XLIV. Alien labor in canal zone
- XLV. Conclusion

Appendix

- I. Building Trades Department
- II. Metal Trades Department
- III. Union Label Trades Department
- IV. Railway Employees' Department
- V. Mining Department
- VI. Canadian Trades and Labor Congress
- VII. Porto Rico

99. The Board of Regents' Report

Another type of report, somewhat similar to the preceding, is represented by the report of the Board of Regents of a state university to the governor of the state. Such a report is periodic, in most cases biennial. Its object is to present a complete and accurate record of the activities of the university for the preceding two years, looked at from a business point of view, and to estimate as accurately as possible the needs of the university for the coming two

years. As a specimen of this type of report let us examine the Twenty-fifth Biennial Report of the Board of Regents of the University of Nebraska to the Governor of the State, and by him laid before the Legislature at its fortieth session, 1921. This report covers 256 pages of print, more than half of which are filled with classified and detailed schedules of expenditures. The contents of the report are indicated by the following outline:

REGENTS' REPORT

I. Biennial review

A. General survey

1. Divisions of the University
2. Changes in the Board
3. Changes in the Faculty
 - a. Resignations accepted
 - b. Promotions made
 - c. New members elected
 - d. Recommendations
4. Changes in University organization
 - a. to r. (Listed by colleges and activities)
5. New activities
 - a. College of Business Administration
 - b. College of Dentistry
 - c. Reserve Officers' Training Corps
6. Specific legislation requested
 - a. Specific appropriations for maintenance
 - b. Conditional appropriations for new buildings
7. Campus enlargement
 - a. Progress to date
 - b. New buildings needed
 - c. Memorial Gymnasium and Stadium
 - d. Proposed further campus extension

B. Registration statistics

1. Distribution by colleges
2. Distribution by states and countries
3. Distribution by departments
4. Analysis of attendance

II. Financial reports

A. Individual statements

1. Cash statement
 - a. Receipts
 - b. Disbursements
 - c. Balance

2. Funds statement
 - a. Balance in each fund at beginning of biennium
 - b. Accretions to each fund
 - c. Expenditures from each fund
 - d. Balance in each fund at end of biennium
3. Student Loan Fund
 - a. Charges
 - b. Credits
4. University Building Fund
 - a. Detailed statement of expenditures
 - b. Summary of expenditures and resources
5. University expenditures
 - a. At Lincoln
 - b. At places other than Lincoln
6. Summary of employees
 - a. Instructional
 - b. Administrative and executive
7. Estimates for coming biennium
 - a. Resources
 - b. Expenditures
 - c. Additional requests

B. Classification statements

1. Statement number 1
 - a. Salaries and wages
 - b. All other expenses
 - c. Capital
 - (1) Equipment
 - (2) Buildings and improvements
 - (3) Land and improvements
2. Statement number 2
 - a. Administration
 - (1) Salaries and wages
 - (2) Other expenses
 - (3) Equipment
 - (4) Totals
 - b. Departments and divisions
 - (1) Salaries and wages
 - (2) Other expenses
 - (3) Equipment
 - (4) Totals
3. General summary
 - a. Salaries and wages
 - b. Other expenses
 - c. Equipment
 - d. Land, buildings, permanent improvements

C. Detailed schedule of expenditures

(An itemized list, alphabetically arranged, of all expenditures by the Board for the biennium, covers 109 pages.)

D. Property inventory

1. Real estate
 - a. Detailed(to)
 - r. Descriptions
2. Buildings on city campus
3. Improvements other than buildings on city campus
4. Buildings and building improvements on University Farm
5. Improvements other than buildings on University Farm
6. Buildings and improvements on Medical College Campus in Omaha
7. Buildings and improvements on Nebraska School of Agriculture at Curtis
8. Buildings and improvements on Fruit Farm at Union.
9. Buildings and improvements on Substation at North Platte
10. Buildings and improvements on Substation at Valentine
11. Buildings and improvements on Substation at Scottsbluff
12. Chattel property
13. Recapitulation

100. The City Manager's Report

The conduct of affairs in American municipalities has long been the object of severest public criticism. Of the various reforms which have been proposed and tried no other seems to have succeeded so well as the city manager plan of municipal government. There can be no doubt that the success of this plan has in large measure been due to the educational campaigns which have been carried on and to the open welcome which has at all times been extended to all forms of publicity. The city managers and the city commissions back of them have been wise enough to realize that as long as the inhabitants of a city are kept in

the dark as to what is transpiring among their officials, just so long will they be suspicious and ready to take sides against the municipal government. The experience of these managers and commissioners has shown that letting in the open light of publicity is the best possible means of dispelling suspicions and of arousing an enthusiastic backing for the city government.

In this publicity work the published reports, annual and otherwise, have played a very important part. Indeed, so much importance has been attached to these reports and so much interest has been aroused in them that they have developed more highly and more completely than have the reports of private corporations and have in many cases become models for the latter. It would not be going too far to say that city managers' reports are, all things considered, the best business reports of the present day.

Among the cities which have had successful administrations under the city manager plan one of the most prominent is Dayton, Ohio. And among the reports issued by these cities *The Annual Report of the City of Dayton* ranks among the very highest. Here is the "Foreword" of the report published by the city commission in March, 1921:

Citizens of Dayton:

The City Commission herewith gladly presents to you the results of the stewardship placed in its hands during the year 1920.

We are pleased to submit to you a report of the operation of the City Manager Government covering another year of effort to continue Dayton as one of the best governed cities of the United States.

In presenting this report we are attempting by an impartial statement to let the people of Dayton know what is going on in the local government and the results accomplished. Departmental reports of the various activities have been presented in detail upon which this outline is based. The report submitted has been boiled down so that it can be understood by everyone.

We have ordered a general distribution made in the hope that it will be read by every taxpayer so that a better understanding can be had of what the City's organization is doing and how the people's money is being spent. The City Commission is ever

ready and always willing to receive criticisms or suggestions in regard to the operations of the government.

Very truly,

J. M. Switzer, Mayor.
G. W. Shroyer,
H. A. Hiddesen,
A. I. Mendendall,
Lorin Wright.

The report proper consists of seven parts, each devoted to one department of the city government. In addition to the pleasing style of its composition, the report is enlivened by the use of thirty-one actual photographs relating to the various departments and so arranged that each page has at least one picture. Most of these pictures show additions to city property or improvements upon city methods which have been made during the past year. A few of the pictures serve as explanations or reasons why the city has taken or should take certain actions. For instance, there is one picture of a series of open-knife switches with this label, "Why electrical inspections are necessary." On another page is a picture of a child run over by an automobile and under the picture is this label: "Injured at play. Let's have more playgrounds." In the very next column is a picture of a playground full of children. This picture is labeled "Safe, supervised play." Besides these photographs the report contains reprints of permits, certificates, and record cards such as are used in the management of the city's affairs. This particular report covers twenty-four pages of rather small type, two columns to the page. The last named feature is the least satisfactory of all. The report would be much easier to read and would be much more attractive if it were printed in book type. The contents of this report are indicated in the following outline:

CITY OF DAYTON REPORT FOR 1920

I. Foreword and introduction

- A. To the citizens of Dayton by the Commission
- B. To the Commission by the City Manager

II. Civil Service Board

- A. Examinations given
- B. Recommendations
- C. Operating expenses

III. Office of the City Manager

- A. Personnel
- B. Financial
- C. Gas shortage
- D. Street cars
- E. Waterworks
- F. Garbage reduction plans
- G. Coal purchases
- H. Parks
- I. Health work
- J. Workhouse farm
- K. Street lighting
- L. Sewer repairs
- M. Street repairs
- N. Unemployment
- O. Daylight saving

IV. Department of Public Service

A. Division of Engineering

- 1. Personnel
- 2. Highway improvement
- 3. Bridges
- 4. Storm sewers
- 5. Sanitary sewers
- 6. Sewer maintenance
- 7. Street lighting

B. Division of Streets

- 1. Street cleaning
- 2. Garbage removal
- 3. Ash and rubbish removal
- 4. Service cuts
- 5. Street repair
- 6. Snow removal
- 7. Flushing streets
- 8. Bridge repair

C. Division of Garbage Reduction

- 1. Garbage disposal

D. Division of Water

- 1. Revenue collection
- 2. Pumping station

3. Output
4. Electric current
5. Chlorine
6. Water consumption
7. Extensions and services
8. Future improvements

E. Division of Lands and Buildings

1. Bureau of lands and buildings
2. Bureau of markets
3. Bureau of motor vehicles

V. Department of Public Safety

A. Division of Police

1. Personnel
2. Organization
3. Statistics
4. Reserve autos
5. Emergency autos
6. Bureau of identification
7. Auto bureau
8. Crime prevention
9. Accidents
10. Traffic
11. Bureau of police women

B. Division of Fire

1. Fire statistics
2. Alarms
3. Casualties
4. Fire losses
5. Causes of fire
6. Fire operation
7. Fire prevention
8. General

C. Division of Weights and Measures

1. General
2. Accomplishments
3. Publicity

D. Division of Building Inspection

1. General
2. Building code revision

VI. Department of Public Welfare

A. Office of the director

1. Personnel
2. General

- B. Bureau of contributions
- C. Bureau of legal aid
- D. Bureau of state-city free employment
- E. Division of Correction
 - 1. Prisoners
 - 2. Crime
 - 3. Prison labor
 - 4. Paroles
 - 5. Workhouse farm
 - 6. Financial
 - 7. Farm buildings
- F. Division of Parks
 - 1. General
 - 2. City greenhouse
 - 3. Hills and Dales
 - 4. Golf
 - 5. Island Park
 - 6. Bomberger Park
 - 7. McKinley Park
 - 8. McCabe's Park
 - 9. Waldruhe Park
 - 10. Linden Center
 - 11. Eastwood Park
 - 12. Stuart Patterson Park
- G. Division of Recreation
 - 1. General
 - 2. Summer recreation
 - 3. Bicycle races
 - 4. Bomberger Park
 - 5. Wayne Avenue
 - 6. Lincoln Center
 - 7. Garden activities
- H. Division of Health
 - 1. Legislation
 - 2. Meat inspection
 - 3. Food handler's examination
 - 4. School inspection
 - 5. Financial
 - 6. Vital statistics
 - 7. District physicians
 - 8. School physicians
 - 9. Venereal clinic
 - 10. Nursing service
 - 11. Hospital investigation

I. Bureau of food inspection and sanitation

1. General
2. Milk inspection
3. Eating places
4. Groceries and meat markets
5. Bakeries
6. Confectioneries
7. Candy factories
8. Ice cream factories

J. Bureau of Laboratory**VII. Department of Law**

- A. Legislation
- B. Counsel
- C. Litigation
- D. Police court

VIII. Department of Finance

- A. Personnel
- B. Changes
- C. General
- D. Receipts and disbursements
- E. License bureau
- F. Purchasing
- G. Accounting
- H. Sinking fund

101. The Mayor's Report

Cities other than those operated upon the city manager plan have come to a realization of the great importance of informing the public concerning the problems and progress of the municipal government. The mayors of many cities have had prepared and published for distribution among the citizens annual reports showing the activities and plans of the various departments of the city government. The following outline shows in condensed form the contents of an annual report of the city of Portland, Oregon:

CITY OF PORTLAND, OREGON**ANNUAL REPORT****I. Introduction**

- A. Elective officers
- B. Members of Civil Service Board
- C. Members of Commission of Public Docks
- D. Mayors of Portland from 1851

II. Department of Public Safety

- A. Bureau of Fire
- B. Bureau of Police
- C. Bureau of Health
- D. Municipal Court
- E. Harbor Patrol

III. Civil Service Board**IV. Department of Public Works**

- A. Main office
- B. Bureau of Standards
- C. Bureau of Buildings
- D. Bureau of Surveys and Drafting
- E. Bureau of Highways and Bridges
- F. Bureau of Sewers
- G. Bureau of Grade Separation

V. Department of Public Affairs

- A. Auditorium
- B. Office of City Attorney
- C. Free museum
- D. Bureau of City Hall
- E. Bureau of Free Employment
- F. Bureau of Parks
- G. Bureau of Weights and Measures

VI. Department of Public Utilities

- A. Bureau of Waterworks
- B. Bureau of Street Cleaning
- C. Municipal lighting
- D. Pole elimination
- E. Bureau of Garbage Disposal
- F. Motor bus inspection and regulation

VII. Department of Finance

- A. Bureau of Purchases and Stores
- B. Office of City Treasurer

VIII. Office of City Auditor**IX. Commission of Public Docks****102. The Governor's Report**

The principles of sound business are being applied more and more to the conduct of affairs in political units. We have noted one phase of this reform in our discussion of the city manager's report and the mayor's report. There is a well defined movement on foot to apply to state govern-

ments some of the principles of efficiency and economy which have proved successful in the administration of municipal affairs. The various business activities of the state are being classified, coordinated, and wherever possible, consolidated. Strict accounting systems are being introduced and responsibility for all funds handled by the state is being definitely fixed.

In several states these reforms have been effected through the establishment of the Civil Administrative Code. Under the Nebraska Code, for example, the state government is conducted through six departments. These are Finance, Agriculture, Trade and Commerce, Labor, Public Works, and Public Welfare. Each of these departments is in charge of a department head who is directly responsible to the governor, to whom he makes regular period reports and also special reports whenever called upon to do so. The governor combines all of these reports and presents the essential contents to the people of the state upon some appropriate occasion. Governor Samuel McKelvie of Nebraska in his message to the fortieth session of the Nebraska Legislature on January 6, 1921, presented a record of the activities of the state departments during the previous biennium and a program for the subsequent two year period. The following outline shows the contents of this message:

GOVERNOR McKELVIE'S INAUGURAL, 1921

I. Introduction

- A. General observations
- B. Conferences
- C. Constitutional amendments

II. Taxation

- A. Most important subject at present
- B. Necessary revisions

III. Corporation laws

- A. Fees
- B. Dissolutions
- C. Occupation tax
- D. Unified control

IV. Law enforcement

- A. Paroles, pardons, and commutations
- B. Capital punishment
- C. Prison reformatory
- D. Prison labor on roads
- E. Further provisions for law enforcement

V. An agricultural program

- A. Cooperative organizations
- B. County farm bureaus
- C. Warehouse receipts for grain
- D. Mutual insurance
- E. Bovine tuberculosis
- F. Pure seed law

VI. War veterans

- A. Acknowledgment of debt
- B. Hospital facilities
- C. Homes for ex-soldiers
- D. Loan fund for ex-soldiers
- E. Legalized boxing

VII. Civil Administrative Code

- A. Department of Finance
 - 1. The budget
 - 2. Printing of reports
 - 3. Civil service
 - 4. Central purchase of supplies
 - 5. Central bookkeeping and accounting
- B. Department of Agriculture
 - 1. Dairy laws
 - 2. Fish and game
- C. Department of Trade and Commerce
 - 1. Bureau of banking
 - 2. Building and loan associations
 - 3. Insurance
 - 4. Hail insurance
 - 5. Securities
 - 6. Bonds
- D. Department of Labor
 - 1. Statistics
 - 2. Employees' liability
 - 3. Safety and health laws
 - 4. The industrial court

E. Department of Public Welfare

1. Bureau of child welfare
2. Bureau of vital statistics
3. Sanitary engineering
4. Examining boards

F. Department of Public Works

1. Road development
2. Automobile licenses
3. Road maintenance
4. Irrigation
5. Public waterways

VIII. The direct primary

- A. Defects in present law
- B. Changes needed

IX. Non-paid election officials

- A. Would save the state much money
- B. Would increase interest in governmental affairs

X. Inland waterways

- A. State should support the proposed plan
- B. Recommendations should be sent to Congress

XI. Revision of statutes

- A. Present statutes very cumbersome
- B. Businesslike revision is essential

XII. Style and phraseology of laws

- A. Legislature should have a style committee

XIII. Conclusion

- A. Consider the foregoing recommendations

103. The Proceedings Report

Upon the conclusion of any important convention the proceedings of that convention are written in such detail that they will constitute a complete and accurate record of all that took place in the meetings from beginning to end. The material is usually grouped under as many heads as there were sessions in the convention, each session being regarded as one unit. The chronological order is usually followed throughout such reports, not only in the order of sessions but also within the sessions themselves. The ma-

terial in a report of proceedings almost invariably falls under three heads. These heads are: first, official business such as the election of officers and the hearing of reports from committees; second, formal addresses or papers scheduled in advance; and third, informal discussion prompted by the formal addresses or by other events occurring in the convention.

The preparation of the proceedings report is ordinarily a part of the secretary's duties. In some cases, and especially when it is planned to publish the proceedings for distribution to the public, the task is assigned to a special editor or a board of editors. In any event, the secretary's records form the basis of the report. A good specimen of this type of report is the handsomely bound volume of 179 pages entitled *Proceedings of the Annual Conference of the Direct Mail Advertising Association, 1920*. The contents of this proceedings report are shown in the following outline:

DIRECT MAIL ADVERTISING CONVENTION PROCEEDINGS, 1920

- I. Wednesday morning session
 - A. Formal opening by the president
 - B. Address of welcome
 - C. Response and announcements
 - D. Addresses (two)
 - E. Discussion (following each address)
- II. Wednesday afternoon session
 - A. Remarks by the president
 - B. Addresses (six)
 - C. Discussion (following each address)
- III. Thursday morning session
 - A. Addresses (eight)
 - B. Discussion (following each address)
 - C. The "swap fest"
- IV. Thursday evening session
 - A. Annual convention banquet
 - B. Remarks by the president
 - C. Address (one)

V. Friday morning session

- A. Opening remarks by chairman
- B. Addresses (six)
- C. Discussion (following each address)

VI. Friday afternoon session

- A. Addresses (five)
- B. Discussion (following each address)
- C. The "swap fest" awards
- D. Awarding of the D.M.A.A. trophy
- E. Report of resolutions committee
- F. Election of officers

104. Occasional Reports

The reports which we have been considering are all alike in the fundamental respects that each of them is prepared for a certain specified occasion and that each covers the period of time intervening between this occasion and the last preceding occasion of a similar nature. A periodic report, whether prepared by a cashier, a manager, a secretary, a president, or a board, consists mainly of a history of certain events during a specified period of time.

Not all reports are of this regular, periodic nature. In connection with industrial and commercial affairs numerous problems arise which cannot be solved immediately. The rising standards of efficiency and service in modern business do not permit the solution of problems in an off-hand manner. So many new elements are continually entering into modern life that few problems can be solved wholly by the results of past experience. There must be special investigation and careful analysis if the conclusions arrived at are to be sound and if the actions based upon those conclusions are to prove efficient. Men who are qualified by education and experience are set at the task of going to the bottom of problems as they arise. The investigator's task may be limited by preliminary instructions to the gathering and presentation of the facts in the case. Usually, however, he is expected to include in his report not only a statement of the facts but also an analysis of these facts and a concise presentation of the conclusions to which he has been led by his investigation. He is fre-

quently asked to make specific recommendations concerning any changes or additions which he thinks necessary or advisable.

Such occasional or special reports need not interfere in the least with any system of regular periodic reports which may be in operation. If it seems desirable, a special report may sometimes be incorporated into a regular period report, especially for purposes of publication. But the subject matter of the occasional report is often so technical as to render it uninteresting to a general audience.

The following outline shows the contents of a special report made by Geologist L. O. Whyman to an oil company. The report was accompanied by charts, diagrams, and photographs which made it very attractive as well as thoroughly reliable:

THE GARBER OIL AND GAS FIELD, OKLAHOMA

I. Introduction

- A. Scope of paper
- B. Location and extent
- C. Field work and acknowledgments

II. Development

- A. Historical
- B. Production
 - 1. September 9, 1916, to May 31, 1921
 - 2. Table showing, from September 1, 1920, to May 31, 1921
 - 3. Initial production of wells
- C. The oil and gas
 - 1. Grade of oil
 - a. Analysis of oil
 - 2. Character of gas

III. Topography and hydrography

- A. Relief
- B. Drainage

IV. Geology

- A. Stratigraphy
 - 1. Exposed rocks
 - a. Permian Redbeds
 - (1) Enid formation

2. Unexposed rocks
 - a. Non-red Permian
 - (1) Sands in
 - b. Pennsylvanian
 - (1) Sands in
 - c. Well logs illustrating

B. Structure

1. Surface
 - a. General statement
 - b. Garber Anticline and Syncline
 - (1) Date mapped and by whom
 - (2) Location of axes
2. Subsurface
 - a. Method of determining
3. Summary of data used on subsurface map
4. Garber Anticline
 - a. Location
 - b. Dips
 - c. Similarity between production and structure

C. Relation of subsurface to surface structure

1. Comparison of location of axes
2. Comparison of dips

V. The oil and gas sands

- A. Shallow gas sand
- B. Hoy sand
- C. Hotsen sand
- D. Walker sand
- E. Belveal sand
- F. Crews sand
- G. Garber or 2,100 ft. sand

VI. Pipe lines

- A. H. H. Champlin's four-inch line to Enid
- B. To Covington
- C. To Garber

VII. Refineries

- A. Champlin Refining Company
- B. Other refineries
 1. Bolene Refining Company
 2. Fairmont Refining Company
 3. Garber Refining Company
 4. Oil State Refining Company
 5. Southwestern Refining Company

VIII. Casinghead gasoline

A. Source and yield of gas

B. Method of gasoline extraction

C. Plants in the Garber Field

1. Atlantic Petroleum Company
2. Cosden-Marland Combined Plant
3. Empire Gas and Fuel Company
4. Exchange Gasoline Company's Plant No. 6
5. Model Gasoline Company
6. Peppers Gasoline Company
7. Roxana Petroleum Company
8. Tidal Gasoline Company

105. Research Reports

The basic principles underlying the preparation of all special business reports are to be found in the type of report prepared by the scientific investigator upon the conclusion of an experiment or a series of experiments. Strictly scientific methods are not always practicable in dealing with the problems of trade and commerce but they furnish the ideal toward which all investigators in all fields of human activity are constantly striving. Industry has always utilized the results of scientific work and there is now clearly manifest an effort to apply as far as is practicably possible the methods of science. One of these manifestations is the tendency of the everyday business report to conform to the plan usually found in the experimental or research report prepared by the scientist. The research report is now common in the management of industry, for the working force of every large industrial organization includes highly trained specialists who devote their time and efforts to the perfection of old methods and to the discovery of new ones.

Work which looks to the discovery of new products or new methods obviously cannot be standardized. Inventive genius and scientific vision play too large a part in it for that. But the form into which the results of such work are cast naturally tends to become more and more fixed as thousands upon thousands of experiments are written up.

Each experiment or set of experiments is prompted by some purpose, which is usually well defined in the investigator's mind before he begins his work. Each experiment requires certain apparatus and equipment. The careful workman always gets his tools into good condition and convenient position before he undertakes a job. Some problems require one angle of approach and some another. In some cases one can use methods of procedure which have become highly standardized and uniform through frequent repetition. In other cases one must devise his own methods. Whether he is an employee of an industrial organization seeking profit or a private adventurer in the realms of science seeking only to know the truth, the investigator's desire is to get results. The data themselves are of little value to him and of less value to others until they are interpreted in the form of conclusions.

The research report divides naturally into parts as follows:

1. A review of previous work in this field.
2. A statement of the specific present purpose.
3. A description of the equipment and materials used.
4. An explanation of the methods used.
5. A detailed record of results in the form of data.
6. An interpretation of these results as they relate to the specific purpose stated at the outset.

106. Investigational Reports in Business

The field of investigational reports is as broad as the field of human knowledge and inquiry. A large part of the progress which has been made in trade and industry has come as the direct result of special investigations which have revealed new facts and have led to new ways of accomplishing the world's work. The methods employed in these investigations and the forms followed in presenting the facts are all modifications of the fundamental methods and forms used in the experimental work of the scientist adapted to meet the needs of varying conditions.

The investigational problems of industry differ from the research problem in at least one essential respect. In

the laboratory the investigator can control the conditions under which he works and can modify them almost at will. If one angle of approach fails to produce the result desired, he can try another and can continue thus until he has exhausted all of the possibilities. The nature and the value of the results in a given research experiment are thus dependent to a large degree upon the ability and patience of the individual investigator. In the world at large the investigator has no such control over external conditions as he has in the laboratory. He does, however, have control over his own methods of procedure and is responsible for knowing and using the best possible methods in any given problem.

Since the investigator's first task is that of getting at the facts, he must know, first of all, the sources from which the facts may be obtained. He must, moreover, find ways and means of making these sources available. In all investigations of importance it is assumed that the investigator will study the problem at first hand and that he will base all essential statements in his report, whether of fact or opinion, upon his own actual observation. But some investigations are of such scope as to make it impossible for one man to gather through his own personal observation all of the necessary facts. Some recent investigations have required the services of a whole corps of men. The most proficient individual would be unable to complete in a normal working lifetime some of the investigations now under way. Again, a single investigation in these days often involves the gathering of facts in so many different fields and necessitates knowledge and training of so many different kinds that no one person can be found who is qualified to undertake the task.

When the scale of an investigation or its comprehensive nature renders impossible complete observation by one man, the selection of properly qualified subordinates becomes the chief task of the man in charge of the investigation. He must bring to his assistance men of capacity and reliability. He must be able to evaluate the work of these men separately and collectively. At the end of the investigation

he must be able to combine into one well organized and comprehensive report the total results produced by the labors of all who have been engaged in the task.

The following outline shows the contents of a combined report to the Bureau of Mines, Department of Interior, by Geologist Donald F. Macdonald and Mining Engineer Charles Enzian:

PROSPECTING AND MINING OF COPPER ORE
AT SANTA RITA, NEW MEXICO¹
MACDONALD AND ENZIAN

I. Introduction

- A. Acknowledgments
- B. Location and general geography of Santa Rita district

II. Geologic conditions governing mining in Santa Rita district.

- A. Ore deposits
- B. Adaptation of mining methods to geology and topography

III. History of mining in Santa Rita district

IV. Present conditions and extent of property

V. Prospecting and locating ore bodies

- A. Churn drilling and sampling
 - 1. Type of drill used
 - 2. Methods of drilling
 - 3. Errors in churn-drill sampling
 - 4. Operation and efficiency of prospect drilling
 - 5. Cost of prospect drilling

VI. Assay records and ore classification

- A. Cross-sectioning the ore bodies
- B. General considerations in delimiting ore bodies

VII. Methods of estimating ore

- A. Assay plan
- B. Preliminary estimates
- C. Estimating ore by triangular-prism method

¹ Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines, Bulletin 107.

D. Formulas for estimating ore

1. Formula for determining lowest grade of rock that may be classed as ore
2. Formula to determine whether ore should be smelted in the crude or milled and the concentrates smelted

E. Sampling and assaying methods

1. Prospect-hole samples
2. Gold assays
3. Blast-hole and pit samples
4. Sample shop and assay shop
5. Number and cost of assays
6. Forms used in assay shop
7. Method of sampling old dumps

VIII. Details of mining in Santa Rita district**A. General organization of operating company****B. Mining and estimation of ore by benches****C. Blast-hole drilling**

1. Types of churn drills used
2. Operation and efficiency of blast-hole churn drills
3. Costs of blast-hole churn drilling
4. Types of tripod drills
5. Costs of drilling blast holes by air drills
6. Use of hammer drills

D. Blasting

1. Explosives used
2. Storage and handling of explosives
3. "Springing" or chambering holes
4. Charging and firing
5. Factors affecting blasting efficiency
6. Secondary or "dobe" blasting
7. Blasting costs
8. Blasting accidents
9. Safety rules
10. "Gopher" blasting

E. Loading ore**F. Transportation of ore****G. Crushing of coarse ore****H. Mine drainage****I. Compressor plant****J. Central power plant and power distribution**

K. Santa Rita power and shop equipment

L. Water supply at Santa Rita

M. Fuel

N. Mining costs

IX. Milling

A. Hurley water supply

B. Milling costs

C. Repair

X. General engineering details

A. Monthly estimates and statements

B. Monthly, quarterly, and annual statements by engineering department

C. Health and sanitary measures

1. Hospital at Santa Rita

2. Accident reports

3. Sanitary equipment

4. Rescue and first-aid work

5. Recreation

XI. Timekeeping, accounting, and warehouse methods

A. Timekeeping

B. Accounting

C. Warehouse methods

107. Progress Reports

Those who are engaged in projects, investigational or otherwise, extending over a long period of time are very apt to be called upon for progress reports. Such reports may cover a single completed phase of the work, or they may cover accomplishments in the project as a whole up to a certain point. Sometimes progress reports are required at stated intervals. In such cases the progress report may combine features of the periodic and the investigational report. It may be a record of transactions and achievements during a given interval of time and it may contain recommendations concerning future procedure.

Even if he is not required to submit progress reports,

the man in charge of a project will do well to prepare them for his own use. He will find the task of preparing his final and complete report much simplified if he has one or more of these partial reports to aid him. This will be true particularly in such projects as extend over many months of time and involve a complexity of detail. If he voluntarily submits to his employer a progress report at times during the process of construction or of investigation, he will probably find that this action will redound to his benefit in more ways than one. The man who does a little more than he is absolutely compelled to do seldom has to worry about his present position or his promotion to a better one.

Progress reports which are required at short intervals are often submitted on specially prepared forms. But men in higher and more responsible positions are seldom provided with such forms. They must work out their own plans and their own methods of presentation. There are two principal plans according to which the material in a progress report can be organized. This follows naturally from the fact that there are two kinds of units with which such a report deals, the time unit and the work unit. The main divisions of the report may consist of the hours, days, or weeks making up the interval of time represented in the report. Under each of these time units may be grouped in logical order the various phases or departments of the work which has been carried on. On the other hand, the material to be presented may be divided first according to the departments of the work and then according to the time units involved. Both of these plans are in common use. It is worth one's while to try out both of them before putting a report in final form.

108. The Use of Narration in Business Reports

A study of many business reports reveals the fact they are all built fundamentally upon the principles of narration. And what do we mean by narration? First of all we must notice that there are two kinds of narrative writing. The first kind is known as complex or plot narrative

and the second as simple or non-plot narrative. Complex narrative is found in all of the forms of writing known as fiction,—novels, dramas, and short stories,—in which the writer deliberately invents and arranges the happenings according to some preconceived plan. The business report clearly does not belong to this type. Simple narrative, on the other hand, includes all those forms of writing in which the chronological order is dominant, such as history, biography, and autobiography. Does the business report belong to this group? The periodic report evidently does, for as we have seen it is chiefly a record of events during a certain interval of time arranged in the order of their occurrence. In some business reports logical bases of organization are introduced and are allowed to modify somewhat the strict chronological order. But the time sequence and the time unit are never crowded out. Whatever modifications may be introduced into it, the business report is fundamentally a form of simple narration.

In the report, as in the other forms of simple narrative, the first problem is the selection of those events which are worthy of being included. Easy as this task may seem in the abstract, it proves in practice to be one of the most difficult. It is surprising how few people ever develop any ability to distinguish an important event from a trifling one. For many people all of the incidents of life seem to lie on the same plane, so far as significance is concerned. A puncture seems to arouse them as much as a war. International disarmament concerns them no more than does a local dog tax. He who would write cannot be content with such an indiscriminating view. He must develop ability to distinguish not only the true from the false but also the essential from the incidental.

If you start out to include all of the incidents which have occurred, you will soon find yourself buried in details even though your report covers only a brief period of time. The only possible solution of the problem lies in distinguishing the truly essential matters and in eliminating everything else. If you have to cut out several times as much as you finally use, do not let this worry you. It is

a perfectly normal experience. Beware only that in the process of ruthless elimination you do not throw out any matter of real consequence.

109. The Use of Description in Business Reports

Under the practical circumstances of life every piece of writing that is produced is designed to meet some need and to accomplish some purpose. The business report is one of the most practical of all forms of writing. The principal purpose of a business report is to furnish a record of past activities. The preparation of such a record involves, first of all, an application of the principles and methods of simple narration. Wherever we find narrative writing we are almost sure to find in conjunction with it some description. Description is the term applied to such writing as seeks to arouse in the mind of the reader a mental image or picture. You will note that our definition of a type or class of writing is in every case based upon the purpose of the writer. When the writer's purpose is to stimulate the reader's imagination in such a way that he will visualize a particular object, or scene, or person, he uses certain methods and devices. To these methods and devices taken collectively, together with the principles which underlie them, we give the name *description*.

There are, in general, two kinds of description. These are called scientific or exact description and literary or suggestive description. This classification is based upon the writer's purpose. If his primary purpose is to place before his reader a true and accurate reproduction of a scene or an object or an act, his writing is called scientific or exact description. Such a description proceeds by an enumeration of qualities and characteristics, particularly of those which stand out with peculiar prominence. It is fundamentally an inventory designed to convey information to the reader. Such description may be highly technical or it may be very popular, depending upon the audience addressed. The difference will be chiefly in the vocabulary that is used. If the inventor of a new mechanical

device wishes to describe this device to the general public, he must use a terminology considerably different from that which he might use in describing the same invention to professional engineers. In either case he must present a complete and accurate catalog of details in such a way that his hearer or reader will construct from them a mental image of his invention.

Literary or suggestive description aims not only at stimulating the reader's imagination so that he will visualize a certain scene but it aims also at producing through this visualization a certain mood effect. This type of description seeks not so much to convey information as to arouse emotions. Its appeal is to the feelings rather than to the intellect. Instead of striving chiefly for completeness and accuracy of detail, the writer of literary description seeks rather for such elements in his object or scene as possess the greatest associational values. He searches out those particular qualities which have the greatest power to arouse the reader's feelings. In presenting these qualities he selects carefully those words which have the greatest emotional values.

"But," you may ask, "is this type of description used in everyday business writing?" Indeed it is, and with increasing frequency. The advertiser has learned that an artistic description which has suggestive values and stimulates pleasurable feelings is far more effective with a general audience than is an exact and detailed description. The use of artistic description is naturally most common in connection with the luxuries of life. But it is not confined to these by any means. There is now scarcely an article in the whole range of advertised products so absolutely prosaic and utilitarian that it does not furnish the advertiser with some opportunity to describe it in terms of pleasurable emotions. The writers of business letters and reports are, as a rule, less skilful in the use of this type of description than are the advertisers. But all of them are using it. Some sales letter writers have used the following method with good effect. They begin by picturing the emptiness or discomfort which exists without the article

under consideration and then describe in greater detail the changed conditions, the comforts and pleasures which have resulted from the purchase and use of the article.

Different as scientific and literary description appear to be, there are certain principles which apply to both. The writer must first of all have a definite point of view, both physically and intellectually, with reference to the object to be described. He must maintain his viewpoint consistently throughout the description. He must limit the number of details; he must include enough to stimulate an image but not so many as to produce a blurred impression. He must select these details with a view to their special values in producing a mental picture. Some things have naturally a greater degree of the visual quality than other things. An object removed from its normal setting stands out with unusual prominence against a new background. An object which appeals to other senses in addition to the sense of sight is thereby made more visual. In any good description there must be one central or fundamental image, and every detail which is included must be definitely related to that center.

110. The Use of Exposition in Business Reports

When the writer's chief purpose is to explain underlying principles or laws his writing is called exposition. A considerable portion of the writing done in business reports is expository in character. The report writer seeks first of all to present a record of what has been done. In connection with this record he tries to arouse in his reader's mind an image of the task, of the manner in which it was undertaken, and of the results which have been achieved. He often goes further and strives to explain the fundamental principles by which the whole process has been motivated and governed. The narrative parts of the report convey to the reader an answer to the question, "What has been done?" The descriptive parts of the report answer the question, "How has it been done?" Similarly, the expository parts of the report are designed to answer the question, "Why has it been done?"

In his 1921 report to the shareholders of Swift and Company, President Swift devotes considerable space to explaining the reasons for various facts which are brought out in the year's history of the organization. Having shown, for example, that the receipts of cattle were fifteen per cent. less, of hogs nine per cent. less, and of sheep twenty-two per cent. less in 1920 than in 1919, he proceeds to the following explanation of this falling off:

The explanation is that the demand for animal products has fallen off. In the first place, the foreign demand for beef disappeared in 1919, when England and other European countries had ships available to get cheaper beef from South America instead of relying on this country as they had to do during the war. Exports of beef from the United States during 1920 have been insignificant. Likewise, the foreign demand for our pork products has declined, for the simple reason that European countries have not been able to pay for the products they would like to buy. This is reflected in the fall in exchange rates in European countries. American exports of pork products for the first nine months of 1920 were 51 per cent. less in quantity and 61 per cent. less in value than for the same period in 1919.

A declining domestic demand for meat has also operated to reduce stock values. This reflects a decrease in consumer's purchasing power due to the industrial depression that has come upon us during the past year.

Furthermore, the precipitous decline in the demand for and price of animal by-products during 1920 has operated to reduce live stock values. This is particularly true of hides, calf skins, and wool. The relation between by-product values and live stock values is explained on pages 43 and 44 of this Year Book.

Another reason for decreased production of live stock is to be found in the high cost of feed and other producing expenses on the farms and ranches, a condition which existed through the early part of 1920 and until the bumper crops of 1920 were harvested. Because of these high costs, together with declining values of live stock, farmers have naturally curtailed their production, and many of them unfortunately have suffered losses.

The market for sheep and lambs has also been affected by the large quantities of frozen lamb sent here from New Zealand by the British Government.

In the preceding example we have an explanation which proceeds by pointing out the causes of a known fact. This

is reasoning from effect to cause, a method which is very often used in business reports. The opposite method, that of explaining the results which must necessarily follow from certain known causes, is equally common. President Swift uses this method also. He predicts that the future is bright for the shareholders and bases his prediction upon certain definite facts which will act as causes to produce future prosperity. Among the causes which he points out are the following: The most difficult period of post-war readjustment is over; the company's inventories are down to a marketable basis; the officers, managers, and employees are loyal to the company; meat prices are so low as to encourage increased consumption; since the packing industry was among the first to suffer from a decline in values it will be among the first to get back to normal; steps are being taken to improve the foreign exchange situation and thus to open foreign markets to American business; and war-time labor conditions are disappearing.

Causal relationship, as is indicated in the foregoing examples, furnishes one of the chief methods of explanation in business reports. Among the other expository methods employed in reports the most common are exposition by definition and exposition by example. The same fundamental principles underlie all of these forms of explanation. The writer must have a single central idea in mind. He must follow a clear and logical order in working out this idea; in other words, he must have a definite plan. He must consider the idea itself and his manner of treating it from the viewpoint of the reader. Unity, clearness, and adaptation—these are indispensable requisites of good exposition.

111. The Use of Argumentation in Business Reports

The name *argumentation* is properly applied to any composition in which the writer's chief purpose is to convince the reader of the truth or falsity of a proposition and to persuade him to act in accordance with his conviction. Every business report is in some degree argumentative, although in many reports the argument is implied

rather than expressed. Consider, for example, the briefest form of business report, the one which consists simply of a sheet of tabulated figures showing the present financial standing of a company and the gains made during a certain period. What is the implied argument of such a financial statement with its heavy-type totals showing the excess of assets over liabilities and the increases in business and in profits over previous periods? Virtually, such a report says to the reader: "Our business is on a perfectly sound basis. It is getting better all the time. You will be perfectly safe in any business dealings which you have with this company. You will be perfectly safe in any investments which you make in it. Indeed, you should prefer to deal with this company and to invest in it." Thus the argument is carried by implication in a form of business report in which custom does not permit the use of direct argumentative methods.

In most reports the argument is expressed and appears in as complete and detailed form as do the narrative, descriptive, or expository parts. The argument in reports appears most commonly in connection with the recommendations, and these usually occur at or near the end. For example, President Swift, in his report already referred to, advises the shareholders of the company to refrain from selling their stock. Then he goes a step further and recommends that they buy more stock. Again, in closing his address he appeals to all the shareholders to become familiar with Swift products and to insist upon getting them from their dealers. These are good examples of appeals directed toward arousing certain definite actions.

The engineer who is appointed to investigate the possible sources of power for a new manufacturing plant and to report his findings is ordinarily expected to include in his report a specific recommendation as to the source of power which should be utilized. He is usually expected to cite the reasons upon which he bases his recommendation. A similar requirement is placed upon nearly every investigator. In fact, the recommendation is often the most important part of the report, for it determines largely what

action will be taken. Reduced to skeleton form, the recommendation part of the report might appear something like this:

Your proposed plant for manufacturing coal tar products at Inland, Illinois, should derive its power from coal-burning steam engines, for

- I. This would be the most economical plan, for
 - A. Coal is readily available in large quantities, for
 - 1. There are fifteen mines within a radius of one mile
 - 2. Transportation facilities are adequate to bring in more if it is needed, for
 - a. Two railroads enter Inland
- II. Any other plan would necessitate a long delay, for
 - A. Water power could be made available only by building a dam across the Blue River
 - B. The right to use public waterways must be secured through legal processes, for
 - 1. Illinois *Statutes* 1167A provide this

This brief of the recommendations in a consulting engineer's report shows distinctly that the writer's purpose was an argumentative one; that is, he was trying to convince the mind of his reader and persuade him to action. You will note that every heading in this brief consists of a complete statement, that the main headings read as direct proof of the proposition, and that each subheading reads as direct proof of the main heading under which it stands. The brief form illustrated in the foregoing example is worth mastering, for it will assist you both in analyzing and testing the arguments of others and in giving logical organization to your own.

Persuasion is used to some extent in business reports but much less frequently than in sales letters and advertisements. An investigator or an officer who reports to a committee or other limited group usually confines himself to the task of conviction, that is, to intellectual and logical appeals. Reports to large bodies, and especially those intended for publication and public distribution, commonly contain some emotional appeals.

112. The Use of Mechanical Aids in a Report

Why is it that a child would rather look at a magazine than at a book? Which section of a newspaper does a child invariably turn to first? A child's interest in printed publications is in exact proportion to the amount of illustrative matter which they contain. And few grown-ups have entirely overcome their instinctive tendency to turn first in a book or a periodical to the illustrations. Pictures seem to be universally more attractive than printed words. This is doubtless due to the fact that pictures convey their messages more completely and more quickly than do words. As a rule, they require less effort upon the part of the reader. Most of us would rather look at a poor painting of a scene than to read the most excellent word description of it.

It is not only pictures but also charts, diagrams, maps, graphs, and drawings of all kinds that have this superior power of attracting our attention. Even itemized statements and tabulated lists of figures appeal to the eye more quickly than do regular, unbroken pages of type. The writer of reports should utilize this psychological principle as far as circumstances permit. If his report is to be printed, he can include almost any sort of diagrammatic and illustrative material. If the report is to be typewritten, the range of possibilities is somewhat more limited. In any case, the skilful use of a few good illustrations will greatly increase the clearness and effectiveness of the report.

It is also important that a business report be well supplied with headings and subheadings. These heads are of great value in making clear the topics of the report in a hasty reading. They are also valuable in making the topics of the report accessible for later reference. Furthermore, they serve to break the printed or typed pages into smaller parts and thus to make them more attractive and readable. Modern readers desire short units. Indeed, they demand short units. And in most cases they are getting what they demand. The tendency is toward the break-

ing up of every report, even the shortest, into minute parts which have no genuine unity within themselves. Use enough headings and subheadings to make your report clear, attractive, and easily read, but avoid going to an unreasonable extreme.

Various devices are used in connection with report headings. Sometimes the headings are numbered consecutively throughout the report. This serves to give continuity to the discussion and makes easier the indexing of the topics for later reference. Main headings are usually printed in larger type than subheadings. There should be enough difference between them to prevent any confusion in the reader's mind as to which are primary topics and which are secondary. In typewritten reports capitals should be used for main headings and lower case with capitals at the beginning of each important word for subheadings. Main headings are sometimes printed in red ink and subheadings in black. Headings should be centered on the page and should be preceded and followed by sufficient space to make them stand out conspicuously. Subheadings are sometimes printed in the margin, which must in such cases be considerably wider than usual. These are some of the mechanical devices which are used in business reports to make their contents clear and readily accessible.

113. Adapting the Report to the Reader and the Occasion

Throughout the process of writing a report the fundamental principle of adaptation should be borne in mind. A business report is an intensely practical instrument, designed to supply certain needs and to accomplish certain purposes. The writer cannot supply these needs or accomplish these purposes unless he takes into careful account the persons whom he is addressing, the circumstances under which his report is to be presented, and his own peculiar relation to those persons and circumstances. The audiences to whom reports are addressed and the circumstances under which they are presented are almost infinitely various. The relationship between the writer of the report and his audience may be determined by answering the following

questions: Is he addressing superiors, equals, or inferiors in position or rank? Is he addressing an individual, a small group such as a committee, or a large audience such as a convention or a meeting of stockholders? Is he addressing persons who are specially trained in the subject under consideration, or persons whose knowledge of that subject is very limited?

Upon his answers to the foregoing questions will depend in large measure the attitude assumed by the report writer and the resulting tone and style of his report. If the persons addressed are distinctly his superiors and the report has been prepared as an assigned duty, the writer should maintain the proper degree of formality. When the relations are very formal the impersonal manner may be used and the third person substituted for the first. In a very formal report it is proper to use such introductory and connecting expressions as "Your investigator begs to submit the following report," "After careful investigation it was thought best to make certain changes," and "After much consideration the following plan was adopted." But it is rarely that the conditions demand such a degree of formality as this. In most business reports the personal element need not be avoided; indeed, it is often to be preferred. Straining after formality when the circumstances do not demand it is almost worse than failure to observe formality on the proper occasions. Many reports which pass between persons well acquainted are no more formal than business letters.

The vocabulary of a report will depend chiefly upon the degree of technicality in the subject and the familiarity of the audience with this subject. Reports are often classified as technical and popular. Theoretically, any subject may be treated in either of these two ways. In practice it is sometimes extremely difficult to present a highly technical subject to a popular audience. The chief difficulty is that the general vocabulary often contains no exact equivalents for technical terms and formulas. The writer or speaker who undertakes this task must make the nearest possible approximation in each case. He must expect to

use more space for a popular discussion, since a technical word or phrase often contains in concentrated form meanings which it will require several sentences of explanation in common terms to render even approximately. Technical reports are, as a rule, addressed to individuals or small groups. Any report which goes to a large audience must necessarily be of a popular nature.

Should the report writer take any pains to make his report interesting and readable? Some men seem to have the idea that a report should contain nothing but hard facts stated in the most direct manner. This idea contains the truth of the matter, but not the whole truth. In reality the question of securing interest is one of adaptation. If your report goes to a man who has assigned its preparation to you because the problem under consideration is of vital concern to him, you naturally need not make any special efforts to arouse or to hold his interest. But if, on the other hand, your report goes to a large audience, including many people who are unfamiliar with the subject, you will do well to make it as interesting and as readable as possible. If the report is to be published for general distribution, special attention should be given to the methods of arousing and holding the reader's interest.

CHAPTER IX

A PROFITABLE STUDY OF WORDS

114. The True Significance of Words

Did you ever stop to realize the true significance of these combinations of sounds which we call words? You may have forgotten all about it, but there was a time when you had to spell out laboriously even the simplest of these combinations. And when you had finished putting together the separate letters in a certain prescribed order and had correctly uttered the sounds formed by the union of these letters you still had no very clear idea concerning what you had done. Your attention was completely absorbed at that time in the difficult process of word formation. Ever since that time you have become increasingly familiar with words and increasingly able to take in these combinations of sounds as whole units without stopping to build them up out of their component parts. Your attention is no longer exhausted by the separate letters and sounds. In the words which you use every day you are hardly conscious of the existence of these constituent parts. But even now you doubtless meet, from time to time, words which make you "stumble" and which require the same elementary process as you once employed in learning the very simple words with which you were then concerned.

Have these experiences led you to understand and to appreciate what a word really is? You doubtless realize now that words are not merely combinations of sounds. Words are the objective representations of subjective concepts; that is to say, words are signs or symbols standing for ideas.

115. The Importance of a Good Vocabulary

When we come to realize that words are the symbols of ideas we see at once the importance of an acquaintance with these symbols. Words and word combinations constitute the medium of communication between man and man. Familiarity with this medium is obviously essential for anyone who desires to convey his thought to another. One's success in conveying his thought to another is limited absolutely by his mastery of words and word combinations. He who would attain the most complete success in conveying his ideas to others must first achieve the greatest mastery of this medium of communication. Those who fail to acquire this mastery, says Stevenson, are "tied for life in a bag which no one can undo."

The importance of a familiarity with the symbols of thought is even more fundamental than this. No one can convey a thought which he does not himself have. And without words he can have no thought. "What we have been in the habit of calling thought," says Max Müller, "is but the reverse of a coin of which the obverse is articulate sound." Psychologists and linguists are now in general agreement concerning the inseparable nature of thought and language. The consequences of this duality are many and far-reaching. The individual's whole mental life is virtually dependent upon the vocabulary which he commands. The range of his thought activity and the extent of his power to communicate his thoughts are both determined directly by his fund of idea-symbols. This fact you can test out and verify for yourself at any time. Think if you can of something that has no word to represent it. Or pick up a book on some subject unfamiliar to you and read a passage, noting the proportion of unfamiliar to familiar words and the effect of this upon your grasp of the subject. Or try to explain to a novice some subject with which you are thoroughly familiar and note the deliberate effort that is required on your part to adjust your thought-symbols to his power of comprehension. A few simple tests such as these will readily prove to anyone

that ideas and words are inseparably related. Before you can convey ideas to others, indeed before you can have ideas yourself, you must acquire some mastery of the idea-symbols which we call words.

116. Man's Different Vocabularies

Every man has three vocabularies: his reading vocabulary, his writing vocabulary, and his speaking vocabulary. The first of these is by far the largest of the three. Everyone can read and understand a great many words which he never uses himself. Many words which he could not define if they were taken by themselves he understands, at least partially, when they are taken in their context. The general sense of a passage often carries the reader over any particular words which are unfamiliar to him.

A person's vocabulary, more strictly speaking, consists of those words which he actually uses in written or in spoken communication. It is only through use that we really make any word our own. Most people write but seldom, whereas they are speaking most of the time. However great the freedom allowed by the circumstances, written discourse is almost without exception more formal than is spoken discourse. This greater formality results, at least in part, from the additional effort which is usually expended upon written work in anticipation of a greater degree of permanency. Hence it follows naturally that we use in our writing many words which we never use in our speech. Anyone who has occasion to write frequently soon develops a writing vocabulary several times larger than his daily speaking vocabulary.

We might continue our classification still further and say that each person has two writing vocabularies, one formal and the other informal, and two speaking vocabularies, one formal and the other informal. Again, we might say that most persons have a technical vocabulary, pertaining to their particular vocations, and a general vocabulary, pertaining to the common experiences and interests of life. We do not mean, of course, that there are any sharp lines

drawn between these various vocabularies. We mean merely to suggest that all men distinguish to some extent between different occasions and adapt their words in some measure to the circumstances under which they express themselves. This adaptation is often unconscious and more often incomplete, but it is present in some degree in the writing and speaking of every normal person.

117. Beginning a Study of Words

A realization of the fundamental relationship between thought and its expression is of small practical value unless we act upon it. If we are to profit from this knowledge we must make some specific effort to enlarge our vocabularies. Here is one of the best opportunities in all the world for self-development. Here is a study which can be carried on at any time and any place in conjunction with anything else which we may happen to be doing. You need not cease any of your usual activities or even modify them in any great degree in order to carry on a process of word study looking toward the enlargement of your vocabulary. Whenever you hear a person speak, whether in formal public address or in informal private conversation, you have an opportunity to carry on your study of words. Whenever you read anything, whether for purposes of knowledge or of entertainment, you can profitably continue this study.

A good first step in any study is the taking of an inventory which will indicate as completely and as definitely as is possible what we have already achieved and what we have yet to accomplish. How can one take an inventory of his stock of words? A complete inventory of this kind would necessitate a trip through a good dictionary and a checking, first, of those words which one understands when he hears them or reads them, and secondly, those words which he himself actually uses in his own writing or speaking. A less exhaustive inventory can be made by means of lists compiled from one's reading. Whether or not he attempts a complete inventory of his present word stock,

there is one basic principle which the student will do well to remember. This principle has been excellently phrased by George Herbert Palmer in these words: "Whoever enters on a course of discipline with a view to development should assure himself of two things: his actual smallness and his possible largeness. Conviction of either alone spells ruin."

This principle has a very clear and important application to the process of vocabulary enlargement. The most recently published unabridged dictionaries of the English language contain about 450,000 words. Any individual's inventory will reveal to him that he uses a very small fraction of this available stock. Even the words which he recognizes and understands when he hears them or reads them probably constitute a small part of the total number of words in the language. Few persons, even among those who have had the advantages of a school education, who have done some general reading, and who have occasional opportunities to express themselves in writing, use more than three thousand different words. Many persons whose schooling has been meager, whose reading is confined entirely to newspapers, and whose writing consists only of an occasional letter manage to get through the absolutely essential communications of their lives with a total of three or four hundred words.

No one person ever used all of the words listed in a new unabridged dictionary. Probably no one person ever understood all of them. Of all the authors who have written in English, Shakespeare used the largest vocabulary. Studies of his works reveal a total of fifteen thousand different words. Milton, with a total of eight thousand words, is second among English writers in size of vocabulary. No one else has approached very near to these two masters. Hence the student should not be discouraged if he finds that his present vocabulary contains only a few hundred words. He should know the fact of his "actual smallness" and should face it squarely, at the same time realizing the wonderful opportunities here brought to light and his "possible largeness."

118. A Word Study Plan

Any person who goes through life with his eyes and ears open will gradually enlarge his vocabulary as he journeys along. If he is a wide reader and a frequent traveler he will naturally increase his stock of words. Even if he stays in one locality and reads only the daily papers he will pick up new words from time to time. This gradual, unconscious enlargement of vocabulary comes in the very nature of things to one who is in any degree mentally alert. Why, then, should one expend any special effort on word study? For the very simple reason that the natural processes can be hastened and made more effective if they are consciously directed toward desired ends. In other words, the principles of efficiency apply to the problem of word accumulation just as much as they do to any other human problem.

How can one proceed profitably in dealing with this problem of vocabulary development? The first step, as we have seen, is that of taking some sort of an inventory for the purpose of discovering what progress has already been made in vocabulary building and of comparing this with the total possibilities. Upon learning how small one's active capital is as compared with the untouched reserves he must beware of being overwhelmed and discouraged by the discrepancy.

The second step in a logical plan for vocabulary building is that of making a new-word list. Such a list might easily be made from any dictionary or word book. But it is much better to compile the list from one's actual reading, adding new words as he encounters them. It is well to have ever at hand a small notebook or a series of cards and to jot down the new words at once, before they escape attention. This is an important moment in the process, for unfamiliar words, just because they are unfamiliar, do not awaken any mental response and often do not get into the mind at all. The act of concentrating attention upon these new words as they are met with one by one is essential to breaking down the barrier of strangeness.

The third step in the process of vocabulary building is that of learning the meanings of new words. For this purpose a thoroughly reliable dictionary should be used. Ideally, each new word should be looked up in the dictionary at the very moment when it is met with. The particular sense in which the word is used in this instance should be found. The definition should be entered in the notebook. The sentence containing the new word should now be reread in the light of the definition. If it is impossible to carry out this process immediately, the words should be listed nevertheless and looked up in the dictionary as soon as possible after they are encountered.

The final step in the process of word acquisition is that of using new words. Noting new words and looking up their meanings is indispensable to an understanding of what is read. But no amount of this exercise will add new words to one's own active vocabulary unless he takes the additional step of actually employing these words in his own communication. Nothing is really our own until we use it. This truth is especially applicable to our word possessions. But a warning may be needed here. We do not mean that one should make his writing or his speech a potpourri of newly gathered words for the purpose of display. Such attempts at display denote anything but wisdom and do not deceive anyone whose opinion is worth considering. We do mean that it is profitable to keep near at hand one's list of newly found words and to run over this list frequently. It is best to select from the list a few words which would clearly be valuable additions to one's active vocabulary, words which one could use to advantage if he had them. When the legitimate opportunity comes he should use these words. He will probably use them first in writing and later in speaking. When he does have a need for some new word he should make sure that he uses the word correctly. Avoid such crude errors as that of the man who said that he was "procrastinated" off the sidewalk or that of the student who defined a university as "an institution for the dissimulation of knowledge."

119. What Is a Dictionary?

Most people seem to regard the dictionary as "dry reading." But one who has really made its acquaintance does not find it dry at all. In fact, few if any books are more genuinely interesting than is the dictionary to one who understands its purposes and knows how to use it. Any one who is engaged in the study of any subject should lose no time in making the acquaintance of this most interesting and valuable book. It will assist him in a great many ways in mastering any particular subject and in obtaining a general education.

The term *dictionary* means essentially a list of words. It may be applied to the list of words used in any particular department of knowledge but more usually refers to the list of words belonging to a particular language. These words are arranged alphabetically and are defined in one or more ways. The correct pronunciation of the words is also indicated. The derivation of each word is usually given and other information concerning its standing or use is often added. This list of words may be included in a single volume or may fill many volumes. For present purposes we may take the term *dictionary* to mean a list of English words arranged, defined, and pronounced. A complete, unabridged dictionary contains all of the words in the language, both those now in use and those which have been used at some past time. Recently published English dictionaries of this class contain about 450,000 separate entries. Abridged editions vary all the way from vest pocket dictionaries to those containing about 100,000 words. All abridged editions consist of selections from the complete list found in unabridged dictionaries. The selection is sometimes made from a special point of view and always with a view to convenience and accessibility.

The most complete works on English words are *The Century Dictionary and Cyclopedia* in twelve volumes, and *The Oxford Dictionary* in ten volumes. The best unabridged dictionaries in single volumes are *Webster's New International Dictionary* and *The New Standard Diction-*

ary. Some good abridged dictionaries are *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, *The Desk Standard Dictionary*, and *The Concise Oxford Dictionary*. Each of these works has its own excellencies. Which is the best for any particular subject or occasion can be determined only by careful comparative study.

120. How to Use the Dictionary

The larger dictionaries are not always available, but every library and nearly every reading room contains at least one of the single-volume unabridged dictionaries. When we wish to look up a word in such a dictionary, how shall we proceed and what do we find? Suppose we look up the word *manufacture* in Webster's *New International Dictionary*. The book has a notched index and we open at the place marked *M*. We turn several pages at once, looking for the combination *man*. Having found this, we turn one page at a time until we find the combination *manu*. Running down the column, we soon find the word for which we are looking, *manufacture*. We note at a glance that this word occurs three times and the question naturally arises, why this repetition?

Upon looking more closely, we note that the first information concerns the pronunciation of the word. The correct pronunciation is indicated by a system of accents and diacritical marks. These marks are all explained in a key that is included in the introduction to the volume. If we are not already familiar with the marks, we should refer to the key and learn their meanings. We are next informed that the word *manufacture* is a noun. This information is conveyed by the small italicized abbreviation *n*. A list of all abbreviations is found in the introduction. Next follows some bracketed information about the derivation of the word. We learn that it comes from two Latin words, *manus*, meaning hand, and *facere*, meaning make. We are directed to see also the words *manual* and *fact*. We now learn that the noun *manufacture* has five meanings. These meanings are listed in series form and are numbered. The first meaning is the etymological one "a

making by hand." The abbreviation *obs.* which follows this definition tells us that the word is obsolete in this sense. In other words, *manufacture* has lost its original meaning. The second meaning is the one most common to-day: "The process or operation of making wares or any material products by hand, by machinery, or by other agency; often, such process or operation carried on systematically with division of labor and with the use of machinery." Three other definitions of the noun are given, two of which are labeled obsolete.

Following the second occurrence of the word *manufacture* we find the abbreviation *v.t.*, indicating that this word is also used as a transitive verb. The bracketed forms which follow indicate the past and present participial forms of the verb. We are directed to compare our word with French *manufacturer*. Then follow three numbered meanings of *manufacture* as a transitive verb.

The third occurrence of the word *manufacture* is followed by the abbreviation *v.i.*, informing us that this verb may also be intransitive. Two meanings are listed.

This typical example shows us the nature of the information conveyed by the dictionary. This information concerns the proper pronunciation, derivation, definition, and use of words.

121. The Grammatical Classification of Words

When we looked up the word *manufacture* we found that it may be used as a noun or as a verb and that when it is used as a verb it may be either transitive or intransitive. This suggests one of the chief classifications of words, the grammatical, which is based upon the syntactical use of words in the construction of sentences. According to the grammatical classification there are eight classes of words, known as the parts of speech. The eight parts of speech are the noun, the pronoun, the adjective, the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction, and the interjection.

"A noun is a word used as the name of a thing, a quality or an action conceived by the mind." The word *noun*

comes from Latin *nomen*, meaning name. Nouns may be common, proper, collective, or abstract. A common noun is a word which names any member of a class, such as *city*, *party*, *student*. A proper noun is a word which names an individual as distinguished from other members of the same class, such as *New York*, *Republican*, *Jones*. A collective noun is a word which names a collection or aggregation of individuals, such as *assembly*, *army*, *audience*. An abstract noun is a word which names a quality, such as *goodness*, *beauty*, *truth*.

A pronoun is a word which stands for a noun. It represents the object but does not name it. Pronouns are classified as personal, relative, interrogative, demonstrative, and indefinite. Personal pronouns are those which indicate the one speaking, the one spoken to, or the one spoken of, and are classified respectively as first, second, and third personal pronouns. The chief personal pronouns are *I*, *we*, *thou*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *they*, *my*, *ours*, *thy*, *yours*, *his*, *her's*, *their*, *me*, *us*, *thee*, *you*, *him*, *her*, and *them*. Relative pronouns are those which join dependent clauses to the words which they modify, such as *who*, *which*, *what*, *as*, and *that*. Interrogative pronouns are those used in questions, such as *who* and *which*. Demonstrative pronouns are those which point out the object referred to, such as *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*. Indefinite pronouns are those which represent objects without pointing them out specifically, such as *one*, *another*, *few*, *some*, *all*, and *each*.

An adjective is a word which limits or qualifies a noun or a pronoun. A limiting adjective is one which indicates number or quantity, such as *some*, *few*, *first*, *many*, *these*. A qualifying adjective is one which indicates quality or condition, such as *poor*, *slow*, *greedy*, *green*, *short*.

A verb is a word which asserts, declares, or predicates. A transitive verb is one which has a direct object, as in the sentence "He paid the bill." An intransitive verb is one which has no direct object, as in the sentence "He writes well." When the subject of a verb is the doer of an action that verb is said to be in the active voice, as for example, "Few students really use their opportunities." When the

subject of a verb is the receiver of an action that verb is said to be in the passive voice, as for example, "The great opportunities are really utilized by few students."

An adverb is a word which is used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. The commonest adverbs are those of place, such as *here, there, somewhere*; those of time, such as *then, always, still*; those of manner, such as *completely, terribly, heedlessly*; those of degree, such as *much, very, greatly*; and those of consequence, such as *so, therefore, hence*.

A preposition is a word which shows the relation of its noun to some other word in the sentence. A few of the commonest prepositions are *about, above, across, after, along, amid, among, around, at, before, behind, below, beside, between, beyond, by, for, in, of, on, over, through, to, toward, under, until, upon, with, within, without*.

A conjunction is a word which connects words, phrases, or clauses. Coordinating conjunctions are those which join words to words, phrases to phrases, or clauses to clauses when the parts joined are of equal rank. The commonest coordinating conjunctions are *and, but, yet, or, also, however, hence, nevertheless, and therefore*. Some subordinating conjunctions are *since, while, because, although, if, for, as, lest, unless, and whether*.

An interjection is a word which expresses sudden emotion. Some common interjections are *ah, oh, alas, pshaw, ha, bah, whew, hist*.

An ability to use correctly all of these parts of speech is the foundation upon which all effective writing and speaking is built.

122. The Principles of Word Selection

Grammatical correctness is the basis of all good writing and speaking. If we do not have this correctness, it is useless to attempt any criticism of finer points. Grammatical correctness is the irreducible minimum below which we refuse to admit any serious discourse. This minimum requirement can be met by anyone, certainly by anyone who has any business to speak or write publicly. Meet-

ing grammatical requirements is made easier by the fact that these requirements are very definite and that they draw a sharp line between the right and the wrong. "This way and no other" is the rule in nearly all cases. Hence we rightly take for granted grammatical correctness in speakers and writers and give no credit whatever as long as we find it. Let the speaker or writer make a single error in grammar, however, and we charge it up against him. Such a charge is legitimate, but one negative item should not be allowed to outweigh all the positive values of a speech or an article. "What stamps a man as great is not freedom from faults, but abundance of powers."

In the formation of a style grammatical correctness is basic and indispensable, but it is not of itself sufficient. Mere absence of error does not make an effective speech or article. There must be positive values present in any discourse which attains effectiveness. So far as diction is concerned, these positive values can be attained only by a careful choice of words made in the light of certain principles. The principles of selective diction, although they are less rigid than the laws of grammar, have been derived from a wide study of written and spoken English and have the sanction of the best authorities on the subject. Briefly stated the principles of word selection are as follows: Words must be selected with a view to the nature of the subject, with a view to the reader or hearer, and with a view to the desired result. Words must be selected with a view to their exact meanings. Words must be selected with a view to good idiomatic usage. Words must be selected with a view to their suggestive values. Words must be selected with a view to their original sources and inherent meanings.

123. Adaptation of Vocabulary

The fundamental principle of adapting means to ends applies to the selection of words. The vocabulary appropriate to one set of circumstances may not be suitable or even acceptable under other circumstances. The nature

of the subject determines to a large extent the kind of words to be employed in its discussion. A highly technical subject requires a terminology different from that used in discussing a general or a popular subject. A literary subject demands a different vocabulary from a scientific subject or a commercial subject.

Speaking and writing are done, not for the sake of the speaker or writer, but for the sake of other persons. This is especially true of the everyday uses of speech and of writing to which this book is devoted. The vocabulary used in such speaking and writing must be adapted to the needs and demands of the hearers and readers. If we use words which our audience does not understand or will not accept, we shall inevitably fail to accomplish our purpose, no matter how good or how valuable these words might be at some other time or in some other place. The speaker and writer must remember that many words which are understood and used in one section of the country are entirely unknown in other sections. If his audience is a general one, he should avoid all such localisms and provincialisms. Similarly, many words which are in daily use by those engaged in one trade or profession are unknown to people in other trades and professions. To address a general audience in technical terminology is to invite failure. Again, many words which were once used and understood by people in general have for one reason or another fallen into disuse and are now known only to those who make a special study of the history of our language. Such words, indicated in the dictionaries as "obsolete," should be avoided in all everyday discourse. The greatest danger of all for the writer of everyday English lies in certain words and combinations of words which have been so overworked that they have lost whatever values they may have had originally. These hackneyed and trite expressions are revolting to every audience and should be studiously avoided by the speaker or writer who wishes to make his discourse effective.

The speech and writing of everyday is directed toward the accomplishment of certain specific and practical ends.

The purpose may be a very large and important one or it may be relatively insignificant. We may wish to effect the adoption of a plan which will influence the lives and fortunes of thousands of people, or we may wish merely to sell some article for the sake of the profit which is in it. Our purpose may be to influence someone to hire us, or it may be to secure a release from a contract by which we are bound. We may be attempting to sell a life insurance policy, or stock in a new oil company, or a newly patented dust mop. Or we may be attempting to inspire someone else to use his efforts in selling any of these things. It is evident that whatever is the specific purpose of a given piece of composition its vocabulary must be carefully selected with that purpose in view.

124. Accuracy in the Choice of Words

“The difficulty of literature,” says Stevenson, “is not to write, but to write what you mean.” Until one has actually gone through for himself the experience of successive attempts to phrase an idea in such a way that it will be perfectly clear to another, clear in its entirety, conveying no more and no less than he actually means, he can have little realization of this problem which Stevenson ranks as *the* difficulty of literature. Clearness of an idea in our own minds is prerequisite to any success in conveying that idea to another. And clearness, both of thought and its expression, is dependent upon the correct use of the idea-symbols by means of which man does his thinking and his communicating. In order to have or to convey an idea at all one must have words. In order to have or to convey an idea with clearness one must have accurate words.

Clearness of expression implies a command of such a stock of words as to permit of selection and such a recognition of the qualities and values of words as to enable careful discrimination between them. This problem most often presents itself in the practical form of a choice between synonyms, the selection of the one most appropriate

word from among a group of several or many words which have the same general meaning.

Let us take for example the word *group*, which we have just used. One dictionary tells us that it means "a number of persons or things existing or brought together." Another defines *group* as "an assemblage of persons or things regarded as a unit because of their comparative segregation from others." We are told, also, that some synonyms are *assembly*, *company*, and *flock*. Upon looking up *assembly* we find that it means "a number of persons met together for a common purpose." *Assembly* is thus limited to persons and implies organization and purpose. But *assemblage*, its first synonym, may apply either to persons or to things and implies an unorganized gathering. Some other synonyms for *assembly* are *collection*, *conclave*, *concourse*, *conference*, *congregation*, *convention*, *convocation*, *crowd*, *gathering*, *host*, *meeting*, *multitude*. Each of these words has its own special and distinctive meaning. Under *company* we find, in addition to those already given, the synonyms *body*, *association*, *class*, and *throng*. Under *flock* we find a number of additional synonyms, such as *bevy*, *brood*, *covey*, *drove*, *hatch*, *herd*, *litter*, *lot*, *pack*, *set*, and *swarm*. If you will carry on this process for several steps, listing the additional synonyms given under each word, you will get a good idea of the ramifications of the single word *group*, with which we started. You will get some idea, also, of the wonderful possibilities of differentiation in this language of ours. Consider, for example, the following possibilities:

A group of	is called an (a)
volcanic fragments	agglomerate
glands	aggregation
nations	alliance
flags	assemblage
deputies	assembly
teachers	association
horsemen	band
quails	bevy
facts	body

A group of
 flowers
 young bees
 keys
 switches
 actors
 fish
 family members
 fashionables
 pleasure seekers
 bushes
 plants
 parties
 old coins
 numerical figures
 photographs
 cardinals
 planets
 colonies
 preachers
 worshipers
 representatives
 stars
 delegates
 clergy
 stockholders
 writers
 commissioners
 partridges
 seamen
 islands
 cards
 figures in art
 soldiers
 legislators
 oxen
 pictures
 letters
 sheep
 ships
 brilliant persons
 thieves
 stitches
 trees
 chickens
 stones
 cattle
 ruffians

is called a (an)
 bouquet
 brood
 bunch
 bundle
 cast
 catch
 circle
 clique
 club
 clump
 cluster
 coalition
 collection
 column
 composite
 conclave
 concourse
 confederation
 conference
 congregation
 congress
 constellation
 convention
 convocation
 corporation
 coterie
 council
 covey
 crew
 crowd
 deck
 design
 detachment
 diet
 drove
 exhibition
 file
 flock
 fleet
 galaxy
 gang
 gathering
 grove
 hatch
 heap
 herd
 horde

A group of	is called a (an)
angels	host
rabbits	hutch
baseball teams	league
pigs	litter
goods	lot
ores	mass
churchgoers	meeting
rioters	mob
cares	multitude
lines	network
musicians	orchestra
wolves	pack
vehicles	parade
statesmen	parliament
friends	party
logs	pile
mourners	procession
attendants	retinue
pupils	school
words	sentence
dishes	set
missionary workers	society
threads	string
rooms	suite
bees	swarm
churches	synod
players	team
crowding persons	throng
cars	train
children at play	troop
states	union
clothes	wash

The story is told that the wife of a certain great linguist upon returning home unexpectedly one day caught her husband in the act of embracing the maid. "Why, sir," exclaimed the wife, "I am surprised!"

"Mrs. Blank," replied the great scholar in his most calm and dignified manner, "when will you ever learn to use the English language correctly? I am the one who is surprised. You are amazed."

However slight its historical basis may be, this story does serve to emphasize the ceaseless vigilance over words exercised by one who sought and attained a mastery of lan-

guage. We do not all care to be dictionary makers, but we do all desire such a mastery of our mother tongue as will enable us to think clearly and to express ourselves effectively. In achieving such a mastery no other exercise will prove so profitable as a careful study of synonyms such as has been suggested above. For carrying out such a study one needs, first of all, a good dictionary. He should select a dictionary which includes a considerable number of synonyms and distinguishes clearly between them. He should have ready access to a complete unabridged dictionary, for no abridged edition is adequate in this respect. He will do well, also, to have at hand at least one of the special books on synonyms. A few of the best books of this type are Crabb's *English Synonyms*, Fernald's *English Synonyms and Antonyms*, Roget's *Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases*, and Soule's *Dictionary of English Synonyms*.

English is the richest language in the world, at least so far as synonyms are concerned. Realizing the abundance that is ours, let us not deny ourselves and live in a condition of word poverty. Who is more poverty stricken than the man who has but one adjective for every occasion? For him the weather is awfully warm or awfully cold, the season is awfully early or awfully late, prices are awfully high or awfully low, his health is awfully good or awfully poor, his chair is awfully comfortable or awfully uncomfortable, and his book is awfully interesting or awfully dull. There is no genuine excuse for such poverty as this. The treasure house is full to overflowing, its doors are never locked, and the roads leading to it are open to all.

125. Beware of Confusing Homonyms

Accuracy in the use of words is, as we have seen, largely a matter of the proper choice of synonyms. Proper choice implies a wide acquaintance with the resources of the language and some degree of ability in discrimination. It implies an appreciation of the finer shades of meaning in words. A related, although much more elementary problem, is that of discriminating between homonyms. These are words of the same sound but of different meanings, as

for example, *read* and *reed*. Few educated people have very much trouble in distinguishing homonyms in general, but nearly every person has a tendency to confuse certain words of this type. A thorough knowledge of homonyms is essential for taking dictation or for taking notes on any oral discourse. The following letter contains a number of the most common homonyms:

Dear Sir:

I sea buy thee male that you're pried has bin hurt to the corps. Yew maid eh mity good duel job of setting fourth awl hour fowl feets, both passed and currant. When aye red the claws about hour grate, unfare, and unwholly prophets I gnu, of coarse, that I had herd the wurst and that the rain of tearer was nearly ore. Fore correspondence cant rite mower than a bout sew much be four they seam two grow week and feint. Of corse, sum of them no no piece but billed letter after letter as the cereal righters due. Sew who nose, may bee what ewe rote last thyme will sound suite after I here thee wrest. But I shall reed it threw and try too bare it.

At leased I wood like two thank yew four what yew have dun. You have shone me that aye aught two altar sum principals hear. I sea now that yew are rite. We have aloud things too go two cede. Knot that we want too beat any won. A pear of men oh us eh grate some of money butt as yew have all ready guest, we can hardly raze a scent. Hour sails seam knot too bring the doe as they mite, tho inn every instant's hour prices are fare and hour goods handmaid. From seller to sealing our grate stalk is piled high. Hole isles are full. It is a cite two make won blew. Thee buoys stair into 'ere and let awl go to waist. Their seams to bee know other weigh even if thee company brakes. The ware and tare make me want two fined the gait and flea on thee rode two sum such cite as wee reed about, where I can bee a loan, free from the serges of pane, knot too dye, but never two meat another bass mortal inn this bade veil of tiers and vein slew of lyes.

But knight is hear, the belle has wrung, and I must clothes. Aye don't care a wrap fore you're ascent to what I've bean lead too dew. But I am glad you bald me out this weigh. Wee knead forte times mower plane, strait talk like-yours. And sow aye must seize, make my bough, and bid ewe ado.

All ways yours,

A. Big Crank.

Some very common homonyms are included in the following list:

ado	adieu	chased	chaste
adore	a door	choir	quire
affect	effect	chord	cord
aisle	isle	clause	claws
all	awl	coal	cole
altar	alter	coarse	course
ant	aunt	correspondence	correspondents
ante	anti	council	counsel
arc	ark	cousin	cozen
ascent	assent	creak	creek
aught	ought	cruse	cruise
aye	I	currant	current
bad	bade	dear	deer
bail	bale	die	dye
bait	bate	discreet	discrete
bald	bawled	do	due, dew
ball	bawl	done	dun
bard	barred	dual	duel
base	bass	earn	urn
baton	batten	exercise	exorcise
be	bee	fair	fare
bear	bare	felloe	fellow
beat	beet	flea	flee
been	bin	flue	flew
bell	belle	for	four
bier	beer	foul	fowl
blew	blue	franc	frank
board	bored	gate	gait
born	borne, bourne	goer	gore
bough	bow	great	grate
boy	buoy	groan	grown
build	billed	guest	guessed
but	butt	hale	hail
by	buy, bye	hair	hare
calendar	calender	handsome	hansom
can't	cant	hart	heart
canvas	canvass	hay	hey
capital	capitol	heal	heel
caster	castor	heir	air, ere
cease	seize	heard	herd
cede	seed	here	hear
ceiling	sealing	hew	hue
cell	sell	hide	hied
cellar	seller	ho	hoe
cereal	serial	holy	wholly

hymn	him	rhyme	rime
idol	idle	ringing	wringing
indict	indite	roe	row
kernel	colonel	rôle	roll
knot	not	rote	wrote
knows	nose	rough	ruff
lade	laid	sac	sack
lea	lee	sail	sale
led	lead	sale	sail
lie	lye	seine	sane
load	lode	scene	seen
loan	lone	sea	see
made	maid	seam	seem
mail	male	sent	scent, cent
main	mane	sew	so, sow
massed	mast	shoe	shoo
mead	meed	sign	sine, syne
meat	meet	sight	site, cite
merry	marry	slay	sleigh
might	mite	sleight	slight
mined	mind	slew	slue, slough
miner	minor	sloe	slow
mist	missed	slough	sluff
nap	knap	sole	soul
new	knew	some	sum
night	knight	son	sun
no	know	staid	stayed
oh	owe	stair	stare
or	ore	stake	steak
pail	pale	steal	steel
pain	pane	stile	style
pair	pare, pear	straight	strait
peal	peel	suite	sweet
place	plaise	tail	tale
plain	plane	taper	tapir
plait	plate	tare	tear
pore	pour	tern	turn
pray	prey	their	there
pride	pried	threw	through
prier	prior	throe	throw
quoin	coin	tide	tied
rabbet	rabbit	time	thyme
rain	rein, reign	timber	timbre
raise	raze	tight	tite
read	reed	tire	Tyre
real	reel	toe	tow
rest	wrest	too	two, to
rite	rite, wright, write	travail	travel

vain	vein, vane	way	weigh
vale	vail, veil	weather	whether
vice	vise	weak	week
wail	wale	wheel	wheel
waist	waste	whole	hole
wait	weight	with	withe
wave	waive	wood	would
ware	wear	yew	you

126. Securing Accuracy Through Definition

The attempt to secure accuracy of thought and of expression through careful discrimination of synonyms and homonyms implies the process of definition. Unless we know what words mean we cannot distinguish one from another. Unless we know very definitely what they mean we cannot use them with precision or convey our exact thought with certainty. How do we know what a word means? If it is used by someone else and he fails to make its meaning clear, we are driven to the dictionary. Driven, it too frequently is. It is unfortunate that people in general and students in particular continue to live on such distant terms with the dictionary. This book ought to be the student's closest friend and companion. If our dictionary is a thorough and reliable one, it will assist us materially in comprehending the writer's meaning. But if it is of the type which defines a plank as a thick board and a board as a thin plank, we shall probably do just as well to leave it in its corner undisturbed. If the word in question is one which we ourselves wish to use, the process of making a definition will do much toward determining whether or not our selection is a wise one.

What is this process of definition? One of our dictionaries calls it "a description or an explanation of a word or thing, by its attributes, properties, or relations, that distinguishes it from all other things." This is a logical definition, the form most valuable as an aid to clearness and accuracy of thought and of expression. A logical definition first names the thing to be defined and then names the larger class to which it belongs. For example, an automobile is first classified as a vehicle or a novel as a tale.

A logical definition next proceeds to specify those qualities and attributes which are essential and peculiar to the thing defined and which distinguish it from all other members of the same class. For example, an automobile is defined as "a self-propelled vehicle suitable for use on a street or roadway, usually propelled by internal combustion engines (using volatile inflammable liquids, as gasoline, or petrol), steam engines, or electric motors, the power of the driving motor varying from about four to forty horsepower for ordinary vehicles ranging from the runabout to the touring car, up to as high as two hundred horsepower for specially built racing cars." Similarly, a novel is defined as "a fictitious prose tale or narrative of considerable length, in which characters and actions professing to represent those of real life are portrayed in a plot, dealing usually with the passions, especially love, and typically of sufficient length to fill one or more volumes."

A definition may be popular or it may be technical. Extreme examples of the two types are found in the well-known saying, "Life is what we make it," and Spencer's definition of life as "the definite combination of heterogeneous changes, both simultaneous and successive, in correspondence with external co-existences and sequences."

A complete definition endeavors to include all that belongs to the thing defined and to exclude all that does not belong to it. Such definitions are used in highly complex or abstract matters and often cover several pages of print. Many whole essays have been written in an effort to define such words as *education*, *science*, and *literature*. A definition should be, as Barlow long since said, "like the barke with the tree, neither straiter nor larger than the thing defined; and, so it comprehend all, the shorter it is the better."

127. Definition by Etymology

One cannot proceed very far in his study of accuracy in the choice of words without paying some attention to the sources and original meanings of the words under consideration. The formal study of such sources and mean-

ings is known as etymology. This study is a branch of the more general subject of philology. And what is philology? We have right here a good opportunity to define by the etymological method. *Philology* comes from the two Greek words *phileo*, meaning love, and *logos*, meaning word. The inherent meaning in *philology* is thus the love of words. The word *logos* comes from another Greek word, *lego*, meaning speak. From this word *lego* we get also the suffix *ology*, which is now common in English words having the meaning "the science of." Philology is therefore the science of words. *Etymology*, from the Greek word *etymon*, meaning "the true sense," plus the suffix *ology* means the science of the true sense of words.

Even a small degree of familiarity with the processes of derivation and with the sources of modern English will assist one materially in his selection and use of words. It is, moreover, a fascinating study and furnishes an excellent opportunity for enlarging the scope of one's vocabulary and the range of one's ideas. Nor is this study of derivation nearly so difficult as it appears to be at first sight. Knowledge of other languages is a great aid but it is not indispensable. Enough information is given in good dictionaries and word books to enable anyone to make a profitable study of the original meanings of words even though he has no advanced knowledge of languages. Indeed, one can learn a great deal about other languages from this angle of approach. As an adjunct to a study of foreign languages the study of the derivation of modern English words could hardly be excelled.

Some of the words which we are using every day have been in existence for many centuries and some of them for only a few weeks. Where did our modern English words come from and how does it happen that we are using these particular words in these particular senses? These questions are worthy of careful consideration by everyone who wishes to use his mother tongue with accuracy and effectiveness. The three chief elements of our present English vocabulary are the native Anglo-Saxon words, the foreign or borrowed words, and the coined or

invented words. Each of these elements constitutes a large subject for study. Volumes by the score have been written on the subject. We shall try to summarize the essentials in the briefest possible manner.

128. Native Anglo-Saxon Words

The first element of modern English vocabulary, both in point of time and of importance, is the native or Anglo-Saxon element. And what is Anglo-Saxon? It is, or was, the language of our early forefathers, the Angles and the Saxons, two of the Teutonic tribes which migrated from the continent of Europe and conquered from the Celtic tribes portions of the isle of Britain in the fifth and sixth centuries of the Christian era. Because the invaders settled principally in the region now known as England their language is often called Old English. But it is a mistake to suppose that these primitive tribes had a single, unified speech. Even short distances and small barriers were sufficient to produce great differences in languages. At least five distinct dialects existed, the Northumbrian, the Kentish, the Mercian, the East Anglian, and the West Saxon. All of these were so different from our present-day English as to appear like foreign languages to a modern reader. Out of the various dialects, modified somewhat by contact with the Celts and with the invading Danes, there gradually grew up the language from which our present-day English has directly descended.

Modern English is thus distinctly of Teutonic origin. The Teutonic languages constitute one branch of the Indo-European family. Indo-European is one of the four great language families or groups to which all of the known languages of the world belong. The following outline shows the relationship of our modern English to the other languages of the world:

AN OUTLINE OF LANGUAGES

I. Hamitic

A. Egyptian

B. Coptic

II. Semitic

- A. Assyrian
- B. Chaldean
- C. Phenician
- D. Hebrew
- E. Arabic

III. Ural-Altaic

- A. Finnish
- B. Hungarian
- C. Turkish

IV. Indo-European

A. Indian

- 1. Vedic
- 2. Sanscrit
- 3. Prakrit

B. Iranian

- 1. Old Persian
- 2. Zend
- 3. Modern Persian

C. Hellenic

D. Albanian

E. Italic

- 1. Umbrian-Samnitic
- 2. Latin
 - (a) Literary Latin
 - (b) Vulgar Latin
 - (1) Italian
 - (2) Spanish
 - (3) Portuguese
 - (4) French

F. Celtic

- 1. Gallic
- 2. Britannic
 - (a) Welsh
 - (b) Cornish
 - (c) Breton
- 3. Gaelic
 - (a) Irish
 - (b) Manx
 - (c) Scottish Gaelic

G. Balto-Slavic

1. Baltic

- (a) Prussian
- (b) Lettic
- (c) Lithuanian

2. Slavonic

- (a) Russian
- (b) Bulgarian
- (c) Bohemian
- (d) Polish

H. Teutonic

1. Scandinavian

- (a) Icelandic
- (b) Norwegian
- (c) Swedish
- (d) Danish

2. Gothic

- (a) East Gothic
- (b) West Gothic

3. West Germanic

- (a) High German
- (b) Low German
 - (1) Saxon
 - (2) Frisian
 - (a') Flemish
 - (b') Dutch
 - (3) Franconian
 - (4) English

Although the vocabulary of English has been more than doubled by liberal drawing upon other tongues, the native element still remains the foundation of our language. Those who have studied the matter most thoroughly have no fear that the native element in English will ever be displaced by the foreign element even if we continue to add words of foreign origin as rapidly as we have added them in the past generations. The tenacity of the native Anglo-Saxon words is explained chiefly by their elemental and primary nature. They name those objects, acts, relationships, and emotions which are within the experience of all mankind. Such basic things as land, farm, and field are named by Anglo-Saxon words, as are also the crops corn, wheat, and oats. Words naming the simple agricul-

tural implements such as the spade, the sickle, and the flail, and words naming the simple agricultural processes such as dig, till, and plow, are all of Anglo-Saxon origin. Words naming the universal acts of life, such as come, go, eat, sleep, work, rest, speak, and sing are likewise of native origin. So also are the names of the simpler arts, such as read, write, and spin. The names of the days of the week are all Anglo-Saxon. Relationships between persons are denoted by the native words father, mother, son, daughter, brother, sister, husband, and wife. The primary emotions such as love, hate, fear, and hope are all denoted by Anglo-Saxon words. As long as these fundamental objects and ideas retain their important places among the common experiences of mankind the native Anglo-Saxon element will retain its important place in our modern English vocabulary. The following list contains one hundred representative words of Anglo-Saxon origin:

ANGLO-SAXON WORDS

apple	fee	knot	queen
ashes	foot	ladder	race
awl	freeze	law	rag
band	Friday	leather	rail
bark	game	lightning	rent
beech	gear	loaf	ring
berry	gloom	lung	road
blade	gospel	mad	sand
blood	greed	maid	Saturday
boat	hammer	man	scrub
book	harvest	meat	shovel
carve	health	Monday	smoke
child	heave	mouth	stocking
chop	herd	nail	thief
clod	husky	name	Thursday
creek	ice	neighbor	Tuesday
crop	idle	oak	vat
dear	income	orchard	walk
death	inland	owe	war
ear	island	park	water
earnest	jaw	plot	weather
egg	kind	pride	Wednesday
elbow	knave	pshaw	week
fat	knee	quack	wood
feather	knit	quail	year

129. Words Borrowed from French

Of the borrowed words in English by far the most have come from French, Latin, and Greek. We have been borrowing liberally from French ever since the Norman Conquest. Some of these words, such as *bourgeois*, *début*, and *valet*, still contain marks which make plain their source, but hundreds of others have become so much a part of our daily speech that we are wholly unconscious of their foreign origin. Of the borrowed words in our present vocabulary more have come from French than from any other single source. Although the English words of French origin now include almost every phase of life, there are among them certain outstanding classes. French has given us many of our law terms, such as *attorney*, *court*, and *judge*; many of our terms of government, such as *ballot*, *municipal*, and *sovereign*; many of our military terms, such as *campaign*, *enemy*, and *soldier*; and many of our titles such as *colonel*, *lieutenant*, and *major*. From the same source we have derived numerous literary, culinary, and commercial words. The following list of one hundred everyday English words which have come from French is representative of the chief types of words which we have borrowed from this source:

WORDS BORROWED FROM FRENCH

account	clique	excavation	jail
acquaint	commerce	fashion	jelly
advantage	connoisseur	fatigue	jewel
ammunition	contract	faucet	journey
apparel	counterfeit	fortune	justice
appetite	coupé	generous	juvenile
avarice	courtesy	gorgeous	kennel
avenue	crêpe	grandeur	kerchief
balance	custom	gratitude	language
battle	damage	grocer	latitude
bureau	design	haughty	leisure
burglar	detour	honesty	license
camouflage	distress	humor	liquid
capital	elegant	image	mail
captain	enclose	increase	malice
carpet	estate	invoice	merchant

message	parcel	restaurant	tournament
mischief	partner	revenue	trespass
mortgage	poverty	romance	umpire
napkin	prejudice	sausage	uniform
nephew	punctual	scissors	usury
notion	quarrel	souvenir	utility
occasion	rebate	surplus	vogue
option	recommend	tailor	variety
ornament	republic	tenant	victory

130. Words Borrowed from Latin

Even before our Teutonic ancestors left the continent for Britain their language was influenced through their contact with the Romans. And ever since that time English has been adding and assimilating words of Latin origin. A great many of the words which have been taken into English from French came originally from Latin. Hence it follows that if we include both direct and indirect borrowing, Latin constitutes by far the biggest foreign element in English. While our forefathers were still living in a primitive tribal state the Romans had already developed a high degree of civilization and of culture. This means that they had also developed a comprehensive vocabulary. It is perfectly natural, then, that as Anglo-Saxon civilization has advanced it has drawn more and more upon Latin sources to satisfy the ever-increasing needs for a broader vocabulary.

Words naming mental processes, such as *contemplation*, *discrimination*, and *meditation*, are largely of Latin origin, as are also words expressive of strong emotion, such as *abhorrence*, *fascination*, and *terror*. Roman missionaries first brought Christianity to the primitive inhabitants of Britain, and from that time to this church terminology has been chiefly of Latin origin. *Bishop*, *congregation*, and *deacon* represent this class of words. The Romans developed education and educational institutions. To these institutions we can trace many of our present collegiate terms, such as *campus*, *library*, and *university*. The Romans had a highly developed military system, to which we can trace many of our present military terms, such as

armistice, *discipline*, and *militia*. To their progress in trade and commerce we owe numerous commercial words, such as *corporation*, *negotiable*, and *production*. The names of the months are of Latin origin, as are also the names of larger divisions of time such as *annual*, *biennial*, and *centennial*. In addition to the legal and political words taken from French, many others have been drawn directly from Latin. A large number of the scientific words which have been added to English vocabulary in recent years are of Latin origin. The following list contains one hundred everyday English words which have been derived from Latin:

WORDS BORROWED FROM LATIN

accumulate	extinguish	January	October
accommodate	extraneous	joke	operate
advertise	extraordinary	July	pedestrian
aggregate	fastidious	June	pendulum
annihilate	February	junior	penetrate
April	formulate	kettle	postpone
auxiliary	frivolous	kitchen	predominate
benefactor	generate	laboratory	recipe
calculate	genuine	lecture	reduction
candidate	granary	legislature	reluctant
circumstance	gratuitous	litigation	remuneration
collateral	habitat	locomotive	revolve
college	hereditary	magnificent	salutation
compensation	hesitate	malefactor	separate
controversy	horror	March	September
correspondence	humiliate	May	subordinate
dedicate	identical	minor	suburb
demonstrate	illegal	neglect	testimony
deteriorate	illuminate	nondescript	transfer
distribute	immigrate	normal	triplicate
duplicate	inaccurate	November	unanimous
eliminate	incomplete	nucleus	vehicle
enumerate	incorporate	numeral	vestibule
equilibrium	indispensable	obnoxious	veteran
evaporate	interruption	obstinate	viaduct

131. Words Borrowed from Greek

Our modern English vocabulary contains many words which have been derived from Greek. As many of the words

which have come into English from French can be traced back to Latin, just so many of the Latin words which we have acquired can be traced back to Greek as their original source. Most of the Greek words in modern English have been borrowed indirectly. This is especially true of those words which were borrowed before the nineteenth century. Our rapid scientific progress during the past century has led us to draw more directly upon Greek sources. To appreciate fully the reasons for this fact we must study the history of ancient Greece. Greek learning attained heights which have never been surpassed. Such intellectual achievement implies a vocabulary of extraordinary scope and comprehensiveness. We find in Greek many of the terms needed to denote ideas which are only now becoming the common possession of educated people.

We do not mean, of course, that the Greeks had developed the sciences as we know them to-day. But their philosophers had many of the fundamental ideas which our scientists are proving experimentally. And they necessarily had words representing these ideas. This is one reason why we have drawn so heavily upon Greek for our scientific and philosophical terms. Another reason for this borrowing is found in the nature of the Greek language itself. No other language offers such wide possibilities of word formation through the combinations of various word parts. Of the many English scientific terms composed of Greek stems only a few were ever used by the Greeks themselves. In other words, modern scientists are manufacturing words to suit their needs. An additional reason for drawing upon Greek for the component parts of these words is that the meanings are definitely established and not subject to constant change as in a contemporary language. The vocabulary of science is thus made fairly uniform for the whole civilized world. The following list contains one hundred common English words which have been borrowed from Greek:

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WORDS BORROWED FROM GREEK

acme	chemist	idiosyncrasy	parenthesis
acrobat	chlorine	iodine	pathos
ammonia	chronology	kaleidoscope	petroleum
anæsthetic	church	lexicon	phantasm
analyze	climax	lithograph	philharmonic
anonymous	cosmetic	logarithm	phonetic
antipathy	creosote	mastodon	photography
aphorism	crisis	microscope	phrenology
asthma	democracy	misanthrope	pneumatic
atheism	diagnosis	monotony	pneumonia
athlete	didactic	morphine	pyrotechnic
atmosphere	diphtheria	myriad	semaphore
autobiography	dogma	myth	skeleton
autocracy	dynamic	narcotic	sporadic
axiom	dynasty	neuralgia	stenography
barometer	elastic	nomad	stereotype
bibliography	enthusiasm	octagon	strychnine
biography	entomology	omega	style
biology	episode	osteology	tactics
bronchial	euphemism	ostracise	telegraph
calisthenics	hermetic	oxide	telescope
cataclysm	heterogeneous	oxygen	thermometer
catarrh	homogeneous	ozone	trigonometry
catastrophe	hydrodynamics	panic	utopian
chaos	hydrogen	panorama	zoology

132. Some Miscellaneous Borrowed Words

No other language in the world is so cosmopolitan in its whole make-up as is modern English. No other language draws with such freedom upon such a diversity of sources. In addition to the numerous words from French, Latin, and Greek our present vocabulary contains some word representatives from nearly every known language both ancient and modern. The following list will suggest how great is this diversity of sources:

MISCELLANEOUS BORROWED WORDS

African	canary, chimpanzee, gorilla
Arabian	algebra, alkali, almanac
Australian	kangaroo, paramatta, wombat
Belgian	spa
Bengal	bungalow
Brazilian	jaguar, tapioca, tapir
Chinese	silk, tea, typhoon

Danish	boss, brick, bubble
Dutch	schooner, sloop, yacht
East Indian.....	calico, pepper, sulphur
Egyptian	giraffe, oasis, sack
German	bismuth, meerschaum, plunder
Haytian	maize, potato, tobacco
Hebrew	alphabet, balsam, cherub
Hindustanian	coolie, shampoo, thug
Hindu	baboo, bonnet, rum
Hungarian	hussar, sabre, tokay
Icelandic	bag, bait, bunch
Irish	brogue, shamrock, skein
Italian	balcony, bankrupt, campanile
Japanese	bouze, japan, soy
Malay	bamboo, gong, camphor
Mexican	chocolate, copal, tomato
North American Indian.....	hominy, moose, tomahawk
Persian	awning, bazaar, caravan
Peruvian.....	condor, guano, quinine
Polynesian	taboo, tatoo
Portuguese	molasses, veranda, zebra
Russian	cossack, knout, mammoth
Sanscrit	crimson, jungle, loot
Scotch	crag, slogan, whiskey
Slavonic	polka, slave, vampire
Spanish	cargo, cigar, mosquito
Spanish-American.....	adobe, mahogany, peccary
Swedish	dahlia, slag, tungsten
Turkish	caviar, ottoman, uhlan
Welsh	cotton, flannel, funnel
West Indian.....	cannibal, canoe, hurricane

133. Some Foreign Words and Phrases Used in English

Although they have come from foreign languages, the words which we have been considering in preceding sections are now regarded as integral parts of our English vocabulary. They have been or are becoming Anglicized in pronunciation and in spelling. As distinguished from these English words of foreign origin there are a number of words and phrases which, although they are used with frequency, still retain their original form. These words and phrases are not simply of foreign origin; they are still considered to be foreign. For this reason they must be treated in a special manner. When they are used orally these words

must be given the proper foreign pronunciation. When they are used in writing they must be italicized. In a manuscript such words should be underscored once.

As a rule it is inadvisable to use many foreign words or phrases in general discourse. It is inadvisable first, because a general audience will not understand these expressions, and secondly, because their use suggests affectation on the part of the speaker or writer. Use recognized English equivalents for these expressions whenever you can do so. When there is no recognized equivalent, or when for any other special reason you use these expressions, make sure that you pronounce or write them correctly. The following list contains one hundred of the most frequently used foreign words and phrases:

FOREIGN WORDS AND PHRASES

à bon marché, F	a good bargain; cheap
à compte, F.	on account; in part payment
a dato, L.	from this date
a fortiori, L.	by a stronger reason; all the more
ad hoc, L.	with respect to this
ad infinitum, L.	to infinity
ad interim, L.	in the meantime
ad rem, L.	to the point
ad valorem, L.	according to value
à la mode, F.	according to the fashion
alma mater, L.	a fostering mother
anno Domini, L.	in the year of our Lord
attaché, F.	part of a suite or staff
biennium, L.	a period of two years
bona fide, L.	in good faith; in reality
blasé, F.	sated with pleasure
brochure, F.	a pamphlet
casus belli, L.	that which leads to, or justifies war
caveat emptor, L.	let the buyer beware
comme il faut, F.	as it should be
confrère, F.	a fellow member of an association; colleague
coup d'état, F.	a stroke of policy
cum grano salis, L.	with a grain of salt
d'accord, F.	agreed; in tune
débris, F.	fragments; broken rubbish

de facto, L.
dictum, L.
dilettante, It.
disjecta membra, L.
dramatis personæ, L.
edition de luxe, F.

emeritus, L.
en masse, F.
ennui, F.
en route, F.
en suite, F.
e pluribus unum, L.
erratum, L.
esprit de corps, F.

et cetera (or cætera), L.
ex cathedra, L.
exeunt, L.
exit, L.
ex officio, L.
exposé, F.

ex post facto, L.
ex tempore, L.
facsimile, L.
factotum, L.
fait accompli, L.

faux pas, F.
finis, L.
genius loci, L.
guerre à mort, F.
hoi polloi, Gr.
idem, L.
id est, L.
impedimenta, L.
in media res, L.

in memoriam, L.

index expurgatorius, L.
in re, L.
in toto, L.
ipse dixit, L.

from the fact; really
a saying; a decision
a lover of the fine arts
scattered remains or limbs
characters in a drama
an elaborate and costly edition,
as of a book
retired from active duties
in a body
weariness
on the way
in company
one composed of many
an error
animating spirit of a collec-
tive body
and other things; and so forth
officially; with authority
they go out
he goes; way of egress
by virtue of office
embarrassing disclosure; for-
mal presentation of details
of an act
after the deed is done
without premeditation
an exact copy or reproduction
a man of all work
an accomplished act; a thing
already done
a false step; mistake
the end
the genius of the place
war to the death
the masses; the herd
the same
that is
baggage; army supplies
into the midst of things or
affairs
in memory (of); as a memo-
rial (to)
list of prohibited books
in the matter of
in the whole; entirely
he himself said it; (a mere
dogma)

ipso facto, L.	by the fact itself
laissez faire, F.	let alone
magnum bonum, L.	a great good
magnum opus, L.	the chief work of an author
mali exempli, L.	of bad example
modus operandi, L.	a mode of operating
mutatis mutandis, L.	the necessary changes having been made
modus vivendi, L.	a mode of living; a temporary arrangement pending final settlement
noblesse oblige, F.	rank imposes obligation
non sequitur, L.	it does not follow
obiter dictum, L.	a remark by the way or in passing
par exemple, F.	for example
per annum, L.	by the year
per capita, L.	by the head
per centum, L.	by the hundred
per diem, L.	by the day
per se, L.	considered by itself
prima facie, L.	at first view; as far as first appears
pro et con, L.	for and against
pro rata, L.	proportionately
quasi, L.	as if; in a manner
quid pro quo, L.	something for something; an equivalent
quod vide, L.	which see
régime, F.	mode or order of things; system of government
résumé, F.	a summary
sans doute, F.	without doubt
sine die, L.	without a day being appointed
sine qua non, L.	an indispensable condition
status quo, L.	the state in which; (original state)
stet, L.	let it stand
sub judice, L.	under consideration
verbatim et literatim, L.	word for word and letter for letter
versus, L.	against
via, L.	by way of
vice versa, L.	the terms being exchanged
viva voce, L.	by the living voice; by oral testimony

134. Coined and Invented Words

The vocabulary of a society, like the vocabulary of an individual, grows with every increase in the number and complexity of ideas and affairs. Each new activity necessitates new additions to the stock of words. Each new invention demands new words, not only for itself but also for the new relations and conditions which it produces. Through the invention and use of the aeroplane, for example, many new words have been added to our present-day vocabulary. Such words as *aeronaut*, *airdome*, *fuselage*, *heliocopter*, and *zoom* are among the new additions resulting from recent developments in the art of flying. There is a constant demand in every progressive art for new words to name original discoveries and original applications of well-known principles.

The greatest demand for new words comes from the fields of trade and commerce. Every commercial product, whether it is old or new, must in these days have its own special name. Some of these names are perfectly legitimate formations following the established principles of word derivation. Such a word as *multigraph* has evidently been chosen with a view to its etymological meaning. *Multigraph* is a combination of the Latin word *multus*, meaning many, and the Greek word *grapho*, meaning write. In some instances foreign words have been taken over bodily to serve as trade names, as for example *Bon Ami*.

Relatively few trade names have been derived according to recognized principles of etymology. If we consider the multiplicity of modern products and the enormous demand for trade names we ought not to be surprised to find many radical departures from orthodox methods of word making. In some trade names we find such hybrid combinations of foreign words with English words as *Duofold*, *Laxacold*, and *Rotospeed*. In others we find real or invented suffixes such as *ette*, *ia*, *ine*, *ite*, *let*, *o*, *ol*, *ola*, *ora*, and *yne*. But by far the most of the new trade names are merely combinations of two or more English words which are already familiar. These arbitrary combinations usually seek to describe the leading feature or quality of the product from

an advertising standpoint. Thus we have *Eversharp*, *Gainaday*, *Holeproof*, *Hotpoint*, *Leatherware*, *Slidewell*, *Styleplus*, and *Walkover*. The addition of a hyphen in such combinations is another favorite device for attracting attention to them. Consider, for example, *Certain-teed*, *Foot-Ease*, *Icy-Hot*, *Slip-Grip*, and *Wear-Ever*. The names of some products, such as *Tabasco*, *Blue Point*, and *Mary Garden*, are derived from proper names. Many others are made from the initials or first letters of company names, such as *Nabisco*, *Armco*, and *Cletrac*. Numerous trade names depend chiefly upon queer spelling for their attention-getting power, as for example, *Stick-tile*, *Adjusto-lite*, and *Insyde-Tyres*. Besides these rather definite types of trade names there are many others which consist of curious and various manipulations. The following lists contain representative specimens of current trade names:

FROM FOREIGN WORDS

Addressograph	Dictagraph
Atlas	Fenestra
Capudine	Holophone
Comptometer	Mimeoscope
Cinco	Multigraph
Corona	Multiplex
Cuticura	Phonograph
Bon Ami	Photostat

HYBRIDS

Autostrap	Oldsmobile
Djer Kiss	Protectograph
Duofold	Rotospeed
Ediphone	Tarvia
Laxacold	Twinplex

SUFFIXES

Absorbo	Klenzo
Perfecto	Conservo
Eterno	Jello
Selecto	Resinol
Flexo	Sanitol

Victrola
Shinola
Pianola
Teltoid
Plastoid
Energine
Mapleline

Polarine
Pearline
Tintine
Chiclets
Wheatlet
Premette
Crispette

ENGLISH COMPOUNDS

Palmolive
Walkover
Meadowgold
Linotype
Waxit
Holeproof
Hotpoint
Fitform

Overland
Doublemint
Slidewell
Everwear
Styleplus
Spearmint
Rubberset
Leatherware

HYPHENATIONS

Orange-Crush
San-Tox
Non-Skid
Malt-Nutrine
Prest-o-Lite
Sun-maid
Jap-a-lac
Nu-Shyn-Dye
Add-a-pearl

Pro-phy-lac-tic
Ever-Ready
Icy-Hot
Three-in-One
Blue-Jay
Ray-o-lite
Maxi-mile
Line-a-time
Kum-a-Part

QUEER SPELLING

Sunkist
Korrecto
Keen-Kutter
Holsum
Insyde-Tyres
Klim (milk)
Veribest

Odorono
Phiteezi
Uneeda
Porosknit
Rat Bis-Kit
Onliwon
Liknu

FROM COMPANY INITIALS

Delco
Nabisco
Cletrac

Trat
Pebeco
Clupeco

Armco
Reo
Stefco
Garco

Socony
Wico
Ansco
Ohio-Tueco

FROM PROPER NAMES

Westclox
Tabasco
Burgundy
Worsted
Underwood
Davenport

Hoover
Prince Albert
Dahlia
Listerine
Sandwich
Munsingwear

CURTAILMENT AND MANIPULATION

Spendicator
Everlastic
Sealpackerchief
Duracord
Waxtite
Safetee
Kodak
Mazda

Tiz
Slipova
Gasteam
Gainaday
Notaseme
Autoreelite
Elasticote
Certain-teed

135. Idiomatic Accuracy in the Choice of Words

In selecting words with a view to their accuracy, at least one further consideration is necessary. We must take into account the fact that some words naturally go well together and some others do not. Our words may be entirely correct from the point of view of their individual meanings and of their individual suitability to the occasion before us and yet not be acceptable because they do not combine in accordance with generally recognized usage. *Profit* and *of* are both perfectly good words but they do not go well together in such a combination as "I made a good profit of that sale." We recognize at once that the combination is awkward and unnatural. On the other hand, either "I made a good profit by that sale" or "I made a good profit from that sale" satisfies our sense of correct usage.

It is difficult to explain by grammar or logic why one of the combinations just quoted is not as good as the other.

Grammar or logic can never furnish an adequate explanation of this fact. Of two forms, equally justifiable by all rules of grammar, we instinctively accept the one and reject the other. It is this unscientific nature of the idiom which makes it so difficult to deal with. If a man says, "I done it as good as I could," we can explain his errors to him in a very definite way and we can justify our corrections by an appeal to very definite grammatical rules. But if he says, "My house is different than yours," the task of explaining his error is much more difficult. In the latter case our criticism is not that he has violated any specific grammatical rule but that he has committed an offense against good idiomatic English. His usage is not in conformity with the particular phraseology which has received general recognition by intelligent users of the language. He displays a lack of appreciation of the spirit of English.

Many violations of English idiom result, as in the examples given above, from an incorrect use of prepositions. The combination "different than" is probably the most common of all of these violations. It needs to be guarded against with special care, particularly when the two words *different* and *from* are separated by intervening words. To make a list of English idioms would be equivalent to making a new dictionary. The following examples are intended only to represent some types of everyday idiom which everyone should master:

EVERYDAY IDIOMS

abandoned to	He was abandoned to his fate.
abhorrence of	His abhorrence of cruelty is marked.
abide with	John abides with his parents.
abound in	That house abounds in doors.
abstain from	He abstains from smoking.
accede to	They finally acceded to our wishes.
access to	He has access to all meetings.
accordance with	This is in accordance with your request.
acquainted with	I am well acquainted with him.
acquitted of	He was acquitted of the crime.
adapted to	Some are not adapted to office work.
admit of	The plan admits of no compromise.
agreeable to	Your terms are agreeable to me.

angry with
apology for
approve of
attitude toward
averse to
bargain for
bereaved of
bestow upon
boast of
border upon
capable of
coincide with
commit to
comply with
conducive to
confidence in
connect with

conscious of
consign to
consult with
contrary to
convince of
decide upon
defraud of
desirous of
desist from
devolve upon
different from
difficulty in
disapprove of
dislike to
dispense with
disposed to

emerge from
encroach upon
endowed with
equivalent to
estimated at

exception to
expert in
expressive of
familiar with
fearful of
fondness for
foreign to

James is angry with John.
He made no apology for his conduct.
I heartily approve of your methods.
What is your attitude toward disarmament?
He is averse to trying anything new.
They bargained for the whole stock.
Death bereaved him of his best friend.
Gifts of great value were bestowed upon him.
Some people boast of trifles.
That borders upon the commonplace.
He is capable of doing excellent work.
His view coincides with mine.
Commit your thoughts to writing.
We are glad to comply with your request.
Such conduct is not conducive to health.
I have confidence in his judgment.
This house is connected with the central station.

He was not conscious of his error.
The goods were consigned to you.
You should consult with a specialist.
That is contrary to our usual procedure.
Are you convinced of his sincerity?
They decided upon immediate action.
Jones was defrauded of a fortune.
We are desirous of pleasing you.
Please desist from your cutting remarks.
It devolved upon me to finish the job.
The Pacific is different from the Atlantic.
Do you have difficulty in writing correctly?
I disapprove of your slovenly habits.
He has taken a dislike to me.
We could not dispense with his services.
Smith is always disposed to have his own way.

They emerged from the crisis.
Our territory is being encroached upon.
He is endowed with unusual vigor.
That is equivalent to a confession.
Their resources are estimated at a million dollars.

He took exception to our statements.
Are you expert in letter writing?
His letter is expressive of regret.
Jones is familiar with contemporary novels.
I am fearful of the consequences.
He has a fondness for reading.
That is foreign to the present subject.

free from
frown upon
glad of
glance at
glow with
grateful to
grieve at
guard against
hanker after
hinder from
impose upon
inconsistent with
independent of
inferior to
inseparable from
insist upon
interfere with
intervene between

intrude upon
involved in
irritated by
jealous of
jeer at
join with
known to
liken to
listen to
made of
meddle with
mistrustful of
need of
object to
observant of
offend against
opposite to
partake of
partial to
participate in
patience with
permit of
persevere in
pleased with
possessed of
productive of
profit by
prone to
quarrel with

No one of us is free from faults.
Why frown upon all things new?
We are glad of the chance to serve you.
He merely glances at the daily paper.
Praise makes one glow with pride.
We are grateful to you for your letter.
Why grieve at every loss?
Guard against errors of speech.
He hankers after greater gains.
Nothing can hinder him from succeeding.
Do not impose upon his good nature.
This is inconsistent with our general policy.
We are independent of any trust.
These goods are inferior to those.
Credits are inseparable from collections.
Always insist upon this brand.
Never interfere with legitimate plans.
What intervened between Monday and Friday?
Don't intrude upon busy men.
Smith is involved in a great scheme.
He is irritated by every interruption.
It is foolish to be jealous of anyone.
Jeering at others never pays.
Will you join with us on this occasion?
He is well known to us.
One might liken him to Napoleon.
Listen to good advice.
This box is made of wood.
Do not meddle with the affairs of others.
I am mistrustful of his honesty.
The house is in need of repairs.
Do you object to long letters?
He is observant of every detail.
Some words offend against good taste.
His view is opposite to mine.
We shall all partake of the profits.
Jones is partial to the block form.
What games do you participate in?
I have no patience with such manners.
That permits of two interpretations.
Persevere in your work and you will succeed.
We were well pleased with your offer.
He is possessed of a large estate.
Dishonesty is productive of serious results.
We can profit by the experience of others.
Many people are prone to put off their work.
I have no quarrel with him.

refrain from
regard for
rely upon
remit to
repent of
resemblance to
resolve upon
save from
seek for
seize upon
sensible of
significant of
sorry for
suitable for
superior to
surprised at
suspected of
sympathize with
taste for
think of
tired of
touch upon
true to
unite with
useful for
view of

void of
want of
witness of
worthy of
yield to

It is well to refrain from fault finding.
He has no regard for propriety.
You can rely upon his statement.
Please remit to this office.
Some day he will repent of his sins.
This letter has much resemblance to that.
What course have you resolved upon?
Very little was saved from the wreck.
Jones is seeking for a better position.
Seize upon this opportunity!
He is sensible of his defects.
This report is significant of many things.
I feel sorry for him.
Your letter is not suitable for the occasion.
The colonel is superior to the captain.
He was surprised at my silence.
To be suspected of theft must be disagreeable.
I can sympathize with poor speakers.
He has no taste for drama.
John thinks only of money.
The world is tired of war.
The speaker touched upon several subjects.
Be true to your ideal.
Will you unite with us in this endeavor?
This tool is useful for many purposes.
In view of the circumstances, we cancel the order.
He seems to be void of common sense.
For want of reserves, they went bankrupt.
I was a witness of the collision.
He is not worthy of the honor.
He will not yield to the demands.

136. Good Taste in Word Selection

Successful selection of words is, as we have seen, mainly a matter of accuracy. But accuracy is not the only consideration. In literary writing the element of good taste is hardly less important than clearness itself. Although the element of good taste is not given so high a place in everyday commercial writing, even here it cannot be overlooked. To define in a positive manner what constitutes good taste is even more difficult than to define what constitutes good idiom. We are almost compelled to proceed by the negative method, pointing out those usages which are not in good taste. There are certain words and certain practices in the selection and use of words which offend our sense of propriety and decency.

The worst of all offenders is that mode of speech known as slang. "Down and out," "get by," and "put it across" are among the numerous slang expressions now current. The criticism which is heaped upon slang and its users arises from the fact that most slang has its origin among the lowest elements of the population and usually represents the baser instead of the nobler qualities of human nature. Furthermore, the continued use of slang has an evil effect, not only upon the language of the individual but also upon his thinking powers. This is due in part to the base motives and qualities suggested by slang expressions and in part to the fact that they are so generalized as to deprive the user of the need and the opportunity of phrasing his thought to meet particular situations. This does not mean that no slang expression should ever be used by anyone. It does mean that he who realizes the true significance of language and its close relationship to thought and thought power will beware of falling into the slang habit.

It is possible to offend good taste by going to the other extreme. Just as many colloquial words are inadmissible in formal writing, so many expressions used in literary composition are inappropriate in common speech or in daily business writing. All artificiality and showing off by dragging into the common speech and writing of everyday far-fetched allusions and highly poetic language should be avoided. The idea that a speaker or writer should talk over the heads of his hearers or readers in order to flatter them and to display his own superior learning has long since gone out of date. "To clothe low-creeping matter with high-flown language," says Fuller, "is not fine fancy but flat foolery. It rather loads than raises a wren to fasten the feathers of an ostrich to her wings." Great writers always apply this principle. When Shakespeare wants to make a fool of one of his characters he has him utter verbose expressions and pompous words such as "honorificabilitudinatibus," which is said to be the longest word in our language. A uniform tone of formality or informality should be maintained throughout any given piece of writing. Shifting from a colloquial manner to a formal mode of expres-

sion or *vice versa* destroys the desired unity of effect and offends the reader's sense of propriety.

137. The Suggestive Values of Words

We have seen that words are the names of ideas or things and we have considered them chiefly from that point of view. But we should remember that although it is the first purpose of a word to name or to point out an idea or an object, this is not its only purpose. Most of the words in our language have in addition to their primary function as names a secondary function as arousers of thoughts and feelings. That is to say, a word first denotes a certain idea and then connotes other ideas. This second or connotative value in a word may be compared to the overtones in a bell or in a violin string.

Exactly what associations will be aroused by any particular word cannot be accurately predicted. A few words have such a universal appeal that we can feel fairly sure as to the principal thoughts and emotions which they will awaken. Consider, for example, the word *home*, which is probably our richest word in connotative values. Pick a thousand men at random and you will find the same fundamental emotions stirred in them by that word. The same truth will hold for words like *starvation*, *blood*, *shot*, *killed*, and *death*. The subsidiary thoughts and emotions kindled by these words will naturally vary somewhat with different individuals and with different occasions. The less universal the experience represented by the word the more variation there will be in the thoughts and emotions resulting from its use. *Argonne* means something to the men who were there which it can never mean to others. And to those whose loved ones are still there that word means something which others cannot even faintly surmise. Those words which represent personal experiences are peculiarly our own and are especially valuable to us, whether the emotions which they awaken are pleasant or sad. *Swimming*, *sunburn*, *skating*, *toothache*, *barefooted*, *boils*, *birthday*,—these are some of the words which have grown into the very being of every

man who was once a real boy. It is words like these that will teach us the true nature and significance of language symbols.

The good speaker or writer must consider not only the primary denotative quality of his words but also their secondary connotative values. He must remember that many words which might name ideas or objects well enough to point them out with clearness and accuracy are even then to be avoided because they suggest things which would be entirely out of harmony with his purpose. The suggested thoughts and feelings may be either too lowly or too lofty for the occasion. One of the writer's most difficult problems is to select those words which will at the same time name with accuracy and suggest with effectiveness.

CHAPTER X

LEARNING TO SPELL

138. The Spelling Slump

“Don’t the schools teach spelling any more?” This question is often raised by exasperated business men and editors who come into daily contact with the spelling atrocities of correspondents and reporters. Then these men go on to remind us that a generation ago, when they went to school, the study of spelling constituted a very important part of the curriculum. “Correct spelling,” says one of these men, “was in my student days regarded as the prime requisite of an education. There certainly has been a terrible slump since then.”

Whether or not the spelling of to-day is poorer than the spelling of a generation ago, it is certainly poor enough. When our university students make such crude errors as *misalenous* for *miscellaneous*, *plose* for *plus*, *gaurenette* for *guarantee*, and *articuture* for *architecture* it begins to look as if the question concerning the present teaching of spelling would have to be answered in the negative.

There are adequate causes for the poor spelling of to-day. The schools are open to a large share of the blame. There can be no doubt that the addition of numerous new subjects to the school curriculum has tended to crowd out the older subjects, or at least to deprive them of some of the time and attention which they formerly received. The old-fashioned “spell down” and “spelling bee” have been unable to hold their own against the encroachment of the turning lathe and the kitchenette. Love of novelty has often got the better of sound judgment. The general tendency of the past few years toward allowing every student to determine for himself what he will and will not study has also had its effect upon spelling. “I am just naturally a poor

speller," is a well-nigh universal plea. "I never could spell and I never can," says the youth, and from his point of view this ends the matter.

No one who has made any study of the spelling problem will deny that there is a marked difference between people in the matter of spelling aptitude. But it remains to be proved that this difference is any greater than the difference in native ability to comprehend or to master any other subject. The erroneous assumption that spelling ability is somehow different from all other kinds of ability, that it is a special gift of the gods mysteriously bestowed upon some and withheld from others, must be disposed of before progress can be made toward better spelling.

139. The Demand for Correct Spelling

There may have been a slump in the teaching of spelling and in the study of spelling, but the demand for correct spelling is as great to-day as it ever was. All of the current criticism of the youths who cannot spell and of the schools which fail to teach them to spell is evidence of this demand.

Correct spelling, like most other virtues, is taken for granted. We do not praise a writer for spelling all of his words correctly; we assume that he will do so. But the minute he makes a mistake we charge it up against him. Next to mispronunciation, erroneous spelling is the most conspicuous of all signs of illiteracy. If misspelling does not in every instance indicate ignorance, it does certainly indicate carelessness. Anyone can spell correctly if he will take pains enough to do so, no matter what his native ability may be. Dictionaries and spelling books are so plentiful and so accessible that even the poorest of "just naturally poor" spellers has no justifiable excuse for admitting misspelled words into any piece of writing in its final form.

This standard applies not only to literary writing but also to the everyday writing of the business world. Correct spelling is regarded by all business writers as a very practical matter. The booklets which many firms have prepared for their correspondents all emphasize the importance of correct spelling. These firms have come to realize that

errors in their written communications, whether they are due to ignorance or laziness on the part of their employees, cast unfavorable reflection upon the quality of the goods which they produce and upon the quality of the service which they render. Reliable firms are now taking great pains to insure that all written messages which go out over the signature of the firm are correct in spelling as well as in all other respects. These firms regard a poor speller as a liability, for all of his written work has to be checked by someone else, causing a duplication of effort which means inefficiency and waste. A good speller, one who can be relied upon to spell correctly at all times without special supervision, is obviously a distinct asset to his employers. From the point of view of practical economy, no less than from the point of view of literary excellence, correct spelling is a highly important matter.

140. The Right Attitude Toward Spelling

Modern business writing demands correct spelling. This fact must be recognized by every person who is, or who expects to be, concerned with such writing. It must be admitted also that anyone who has a good dictionary and an adequate supply of patience can turn out written work free from spelling errors. Make it a rule to use the dictionary whenever it is necessary, and never allow yourself to get the erroneous notion that it is a disgrace to do so. But remember that the real purpose of the dictionary, like that of most other books, is to make itself unnecessary. It is neither wise nor economical to look up the same words day after day. You "simply can't spell them" you say? Rid yourself at once of that idea. Such an attitude of hopelessness precludes the possibility of learning or doing anything. If you adopted that attitude toward other problems in life, what would be the result? You would stand still and make no progress in any direction. Belief in one's ability to accomplish things is the very basis of success in every field of endeavor. This belief is indispensable in learning how to spell.

Have you ever really tried to learn the spelling of those

troublesome words? Have you ever really concentrated your attention upon them and made a systematic effort to master them? When you have come to the realization that the world of affairs expects and demands correct spelling, and when you have come to the further realization that you as an individual can learn to spell correctly if you will, then, and then only, you are ready for a profitable study of the subject. A profitable study implies an intelligent and a systematic study. Until you have applied yourself intelligently and systematically to the problem you have no right to say that you "simply can't spell."

141. Test Your Spelling Ability

Among those who have failed to master the problems of spelling ninety-nine have failed for lack of methodical application to one who has failed for lack of native ability. The problems of spelling, like all other problems, demand a definite method of approach and a practical plan of solution. The details of this plan each person must supply for himself, for learning to spell is an intensely individual matter. There are, however, certain fundamental principles and methods and certain general suggestions which can be studied with profit. From these suggestions each individual can select and adopt those which will be most helpful to him.

Every one of us seems to have naturally more trouble with some words than with others. Every mature person has formed certain spelling habits, some of which are probably wrong. The first step in a systematic study of spelling is to find out definitely which words and which types of words give you trouble. In other words, you must first of all diagnose your case. The most practical way of making a diagnosis is by keeping a list of those words which you find yourself actually misspelling or which you must look up in the dictionary in order to avoid misspelling. Begin such a list to-day. Add to it from day to day for several weeks, until you feel sure that the list contains all or most of the words, among those which you actually use, that give you trouble in spelling. The list will probably not be very long, but even if it contains several hundred troublesome

words, do not let this frighten you. Systematic and intelligent application will enable you to master all of them.

142. The Relation of Pronunciation to Spelling

When you have discovered from your accumulated list which words you actually misspell, you are ready to begin a practical study of spelling. In the first place, make a thorough revision of all the words. While you are making this revision, concentrate your attention upon one word at a time, noting exactly the nature of your error and the proper manner of correcting it. Did you write *suprise* for *surprise*, or *canidate* for *candidate*? If you make these errors, it is doubtless because of incorrect pronunciation on your part. Go through your list and note all of the words which you misspell or with which you have spelling difficulty because you mispronounce them. Group these words together and copy them into your notebook. Take a piece of scratch paper and write each of these words several times, noting exactly the point at which your error occurs. Pronounce each word carefully at the same time as you write it. Get simultaneous impressions of the correct form through the eye, the ear, and the hand.

Mispronunciation accounts for numerous spelling errors. Mispronunciation frequently consists of omitting certain sounds or syllables. Errors through omission often occur in spelling the following words:

accidentally	everybody
apparatus	excessive
arctic	fascinate
auxiliary	February
boundary	finally
business	formerly
candidate	formally
caramel	gambling
conscientious	generally
corporeal	governor
definite	hurrying
different	impracticable
drudgery	laboratory
eighth	liable
especially	lightening

lineament	probably
literature	quiet
magazine	restaurant
manufacture	sophomore
miniature	statute
Niagara	superintendent
occasionally	surprise
opportunity	temperature
paraphernalia	thorough
postpone	tract
practicable	usually

Other words are often misspelled on account of the addition of extra sounds in pronouncing them. A few common words of this type are given here:

aeroplane	library
allege	lightning
aqueduct	maintenance
athletic	neuralgia
Baptist	partner
column	perseverance
equipment	privilege
formerly	similar
grievous	village
height	weather

Misspelling frequently occurs in such words as the following because sounds are transposed:

calvary	perspiration
cavalry	precede
dairy	preclude
diary	prefect
hundred	prefix
perfect	prescription
perform	tragedy

Words ending in *able* and *ible* are often misspelled because these suffixes are very similar in pronunciation and because no practicable way has been found of distinguishing between them. The suffix *able* comes from Latin *abilis* and the suffix *ible* from Latin *ibilis*. The Government *Style*

Book lists 250 words ending in *ible* and states that all others should be spelled with the suffix *able*. The following list contains a number of everyday words from each of these classes. The best that one can do is to find out which of these words give him trouble in spelling and then to practice writing those words until he masters them.

able LIST

admirable	insufferable
advisable	invulnerable
agreeable	justifiable
bearable	liable
believable	likable
blamable	manageable
breakable	marriageable
changeable	negotiable
chargeable	noticeable
comfortable	objectionable
commendable	peaceable
comparable	practicable
debatable	profitable
dependable	receivable
describable	recognizable
desirable	redeemable
endurable	reliable
excusable	suitable
fashionable	tolerable
forgivable	traceable
formidable	unbearable
habitable	unconquerable
imaginable	unmistakable
inconceivable	unspeakable
indefinable	unthinkable
indispensable	usable
indomitable	valuable
indubitable	variable
innumerable	vegetable
insatiable	workable

ible LIST

accessible	impartible
admissible	imperceptible
audible	incompatible
collectible	incontrovertible
combustible	incorrigible
comprehensible	incorruptible
connectible	incredible
convertible	indelible
convincible	invertible
corrosible	invincible
credible	irreducible
defensible	negligible
destructible	perfectible
digestible	permissible
discernible	plausible
divisible	possible
edible	producible
eligible	receptible
evasible	reprehensible
evincible	resistible
exhaustible	responsible
expansible	reversible
expressible	sensible
extensible	tangible
fallible	terrible
feasible	transmissible
flexible	transvertible
horrible	vendible
ignitable	vincible
illegible	visible

Correct pronunciation will aid you in spelling many words correctly. But modern English is far from being a phonetic language. In order to spell correctly you must take into account numerous words which are not spelled as they are pronounced and numerous letters which are not pronounced at all. In the following list you will find a few typical

examples of these silent letters and these inconsistencies between spelling and pronunciation :

aisle	juvenile
biscuit	lamb
buoy	mathematics
campaign	mortgage
cologne	mould
colonel	muscle
column	pneumatic
corps	poignant
cough	receipt
debtor	respite
deign	rheumatism
ecstasy	rhyme
exhaust	rôle
exhibition	salve
fatigue	scissors
forbade	straight
foreign	textile
forfeit	tongue
gauge	tortoise
ghost	trough
heart	victual
indict	viscount
insight	Wednesday

143. The Problem of "ie" and "ei"

Do you ever write *reciept* for *receipt*, or *beleive* for *believe*? Go through your accumulated list of words and pick out all those which you misspell or tend to misspell because you confuse *ie* and *ei* combinations. Group these words together in your notebook and practice writing them on a sheet of scratch paper. Note that the everyday words *believe* and *receive* are typical of two classes of words which follow the general rule of *i* before *e* except after *c* and in the sound of *a* as in *neighbor* and *weigh*. The names *Celia* and *Alice* are used by many people to help the memory with this rule. Unfortunately, there are other exceptions besides those accounted for in the rhyme. Some of the common exceptions are *deficient*, *deity*, *efficient*, *either*, *financier*, *leisure*, *neither*, *obeisance*, *seize*, *society*, *sufficient*, and *weird*. Such words must be learned individually and for that purpose should be put into a special group in your

notebook. In the following lists you will find a number of commonly used words which involve the *ie* and *ei* difficulty:

ie LIST

achieve	notoriety
ancient	obedient
anxiety	patient
audience	piece
believe	pier
brief	prairie
chief	priest
conscience	proprietor
convenient	quiet
deficient	relieve
efficient	series
experience	science
field	shield
fierce	shriek
fiery	siege
financier	sierra
friend	siesta
grief	sieve
grievance	society
gaiety	soldier
handkerchief	specie
hosiery	sufficient
hygiene	variety
lenient	view
lieutenant	wield
mischief	yield

ei LIST

ceiling	height
conceive	leisure
conceit	neigh
counterfeit	neighbor
deceit	neither
deceive	obedience
deity	perceive
eight	receive
either	reign
feign	rein
feint	seize
foreign	seine
forfeit	skein
freight	sleigh
heifer	sleight

sovereign
their
veil

vein
weight
weird

144. The Troublesome Final "e"

Do you ever write *moveable* for *movable*, or *tracable* for *traceable*? The silent final *e* is one of the greatest sources of trouble in English spelling. Older writers retained the *e* in all such words as *developement* and *judgement* and the dictionaries still print these forms as variants. But the tendency is distinctly toward dropping final *e* before *ment*, even though it is usually retained before other suffixes beginning with a consonant. *Development* and *judgment* have become firmly fixed in American spelling, which inclines always toward the shorter of two equally correct forms. Under present circumstances, the best that one can do is to classify the words involving the final *e* difficulty into the smallest possible number of groups and then to master each of these groups separately.

The most nearly satisfactory rule that can be formulated concerning final silent *e* is this: Retain the *e* before a suffix beginning with a consonant, and drop the *e* before a suffix beginning with a vowel. But like most other general rules concerning English spelling this one fails to account for many cases. It does, however, serve as a starting point for a classification and a study of these difficult words. Note first the following common words in which final *e* is retained before a suffix beginning with a consonant:

blameless
definitely
definiteness
livelihood
lonely

lovely
nineteen
ninety
surely
troublesome

Note especially these common words in which final *e* is retained before the suffix *ment*:

achievement
agreement
arrangement
disbursement
embezzlement

endorsement
excitement
management
movement
statement

In these common words, on the other hand, final *e* is dropped before the suffix *ment*: *abridgment*, *acknowledgment*, *argument*, *development*, *judgment*.

Final *e* is usually dropped before a suffix beginning with a vowel, as in these words:

abiding	judging	pleasure
advising	likable	preparation
arrival	lovable	preparing
blamable	loving	salable
changing	obliging	separating
coming	managing	shaking
dining	mistakable	shining
expensive	movable	striking
forcible	moving	subduing
guidance	outraging	suing
hoping	planing	using
inviting	pleasing	writing

But there are exceptions, of course, notably following soft *c* as in *peaceable* and soft *g* as in *manageable*. Words in which the final *e* is not silent also retain the *e*, as in *agreeable*. Here are a few everyday words which retain final *e* before a suffix beginning with a vowel:

acreage	manageable
advantageous	marbleize
agreeable	mileage
agreeing	noticeable
changeable	outrageous
courageous	peaceable
dyeing	serviceable
eyeing	shoeing
guaranteeing	singeing
herein	toeing
hoeing	traceable

145. Double Consonants

Do you ever write *barrell* for *barrel*, or *tariff* for *tariff*? Words such as these, which in their correct form contain only one double, are very often misspelled. The error occurs either through the addition of a second double as in *occassion* or through the doubling of the wrong consonant

as in *ocassion*. Some common examples of this troublesome type are included in the following list:

ONE DOUBLE

aggregate	necessary
agreeable	occasion
appraisal	occur
arrears	omission
baggage	opportunity
barrel	parallel
Cincinnati	profession
disappear	recommend
disappoint	tariff
exaggerate	tobacco
guarantee	trespass
harass	vacuum

Perhaps you have caught yourself writing *acommodation* or *accomodation* for *accommodation*. You will note that each of the following words contains two sets of doubles:

TWO DOUBLES

accessories	goddess
accommodation	Massachusetts
address	mattress
assessment	occurrence
commission	possess
embarrass	success

A few words such as the following contain three sets of doubles: *successfully*, *Mississippi*, *Tennessee*.

The effect of doubling a consonant within a word is to make the preceding vowel short. Many spelling errors can be avoided by paying attention to this simple rule and by noting how the rule applies in the following words: *dining*, *dinning*; *filed*, *filled*; *hoping*, *hopping*; *ladies*, *laddies*; *later*, *latter*; *planed*, *planned*; *shining*, *shinning*; *winning*, *winning*.

Another rule that will help to eliminate many errors is this: A single final consonant of a monosyllable, when it is preceded by a single vowel, is doubled when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added. (It should be noted, how-

ever, that *k*, *v*, and *x* are never doubled.) Consider these examples:

bag—baggage	man—mannish
beg—beggar	plan—planned
bid—bidden	quit—quitter
chop—chopped	rob—robber
drop—dropped	run—running
fit—fitting	sad—sadden
get—getting	sit—sitting
hot—hottest	stop—stopping
hop—hopping	swim—swimming

Under similar circumstances the final consonant of a word accented on the last syllable is doubled. Study these examples:

acquit—acquitted	forgot—forgotten
begin—beginner	occur—occurrence
commit—committed	omit—omitted
compel—compelled	permit—permitted
confer—conferred	prefer—preferred
equip—equipped	regret—regretting
forbid—forbidden	repel—repellent

But if the accent of the primary word does not fall on the final syllable the final consonant is not doubled. Note these everyday examples:

benefit—benefited	prohibit—prohibited
cover—covered	stagger—staggering
gossip—gossiping	travel—traveler
listen—listener	wander—wanderer

Neither does the doubling occur when the accent is carried back to an earlier syllable as in these words: *confer*, *conference*; *prefer*, *preferable*; *refer*, *reference*.

When the primary word ends in two consonants the doubling does not occur. Examples are: *help*, *helping*; *perform*, *performer*; *reach*, *reached*; *tight*, *tighten*.

Nor does the doubling occur when the final consonant is preceded by two vowels. Note these instances: *daub*, *daubed*; *fool*, *foolish*; *need*, *needy*; *proceed*, *proceeding*.

The final consonant of a word is usually not doubled

when a suffix beginning with a different consonant is added, as for example, in *fitness*. But when the added suffix begins with the same consonant the doubling does occur, as for example in *meanness*. This rule is especially important in adverbs, which are usually formed by adding *ly*. Note that adverbs formed from primary words ending in *l* therefore have doubled *l*, as for example, *casually*, *finally*, *really*, and *usually*.

146. The Formation of Plurals

Most English plurals are formed by adding *s* to the singular, as in *books*, *letters*, and *envelopes*. When in pronouncing the plural form a syllable is added to the singular, this is represented in writing by adding *es*, as in *businesses*, *gashes*, and *misses*. This occurs usually in words ending in *s* or *sh* as in the examples just given.

A few nouns ending in *o* add *es* to form the plural:

buffaloes	negroes
calicoes	noes
echoes	potatoes
dominoes	tomatoes
heroes	tornadoes
jingoes	torpedoes
mosquitoes	volcanoes

Other nouns ending in *o* form the plural in the regular way by adding *s*:

albinos	pianos
banjos	silos
dynamos	solos
embryos	provisos
Eskimos	tobaccos
halos	tyros
kimonos	virtuosos
mementos	zeros

The plural form of letters of the alphabet is indicated by 's. For example, "He confuses his *e*'s and *i*'s." The plural form of words which are spoken of as words is likewise indicated by 's. For example, "Leave out your *very*'s and *awful*'s." The plural form of figures is similarly indi-

cated by 's. For example, "Don't make your 7's like your 1's."

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel form the plural in the regular way by adding *s*. For example, *chimneys*, *moneys*, and *valleys*. But nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant form the plural by changing *y* to *i* and adding *es*. For example, *cities*, *companies*, and *parties*.

Most nouns of foreign origin eventually become Anglicized and form their plurals in the same manner as regular English nouns. But some of these words retain the foreign plural form for a long time. The foreign plural signs most common in present English usage are *a* as in *data*, *æ* as in *formulæ*, *es* as in *analyses*, and *i* as in *alumni*.

147. Some Miscellaneous Spelling Problems

Word analysis will often help one to spell a word correctly. There is little excuse for such errors as *bycicle*, *dissapointed*, or *prehaps*, since *bi* and *dis* and *per* are prefixes which occur hundreds of times in one's daily speech and writing. You should note that although suffixes sometimes cause modifications in the spelling of the words to which they are added, prefixes do not exert any such influence.

Words of foreign origin tend to become gradually Anglicized in spelling as well as in pronunciation. But the changing of words from one language to another is a slow process. Many of the foreign words which are used in present-day English have not become thoroughly assimilated as yet and are thus not subject to the rules of English spelling. You will find examples of such words in Chapter IX, and particularly in Section 133.

Proper names cannot be subjected to the ordinary rules of spelling. Many of them do, of course, follow the regular rules but many others seem to be the result of whims or caprice rather than of logical or historical formation. The only final authority on the spelling of a proper name is its owner. Some proper names which give daily difficulty are Cincinnati, Connecticut, Filipino, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Missouri, Philippines, and Tennessee.

Some one has said that exceptions are the rule in English spelling. There is a great deal of truth in this statement. Besides proper names and words of foreign origin, there are many other words to which general rules of spelling do not seem to apply. Some of these are distinctly illogical and many others are inconsistent with general principles or general practice. Since we have *almost*, *already*, and *always* it is hard for most people to see why we should not have *alright*. But this form has never been considered correct. Why should we write *nine*, *nineteen*, and *ninety* and then change to *ninth*? Why should we write *absorb*, *absorption*; *maintain*, *maintenance*; *prevail*, *prevalent*; *proceed*, *procedure*; and *pronounce*, *pronunciation*? These are unanswerable questions. There are plenty of instances to support Veblen's charge that our spelling is "archaic, cumbersome, and ineffective" and that it is "as felicitous an instance of futile classicism as can well be found outside of the Far East." But after all is said, the fact remains that he who would learn to spell according to established and accepted usage must put up with these inconsistencies and must master these difficulties.

148. Some Variants in English Spelling

The difficulties of English spelling are further complicated by the fact that some words may be spelled correctly in more than one way. The student who said, "A man must be a fool who can't spell a word in more than one way," uttered more truth than he was aware. The general tendency in spelling is toward simplification. This is especially true of American spelling. Of two forms which are equally correct American usage almost invariably gives preference to the shorter and simpler form. British usage, on the other hand, often gives preference to the longer form. Complete dictionaries list all of the correct spellings of a word, putting first the form preferred. In the following lists you will find a number of everyday words which may be correctly spelled in more than one way. These words are classified according to the nature of the variation. The first

form is the one preferred in the best current American usage. The second form is permissible.

PREFERRED

abridgment
acknowledgment
advertise
advise
ambassador
ameba
analyze
anemia
apprise
arbor
ardor
ax
behavior
boulder
bun
caliber
canceled
candor
canyon
catalog
center
chastise
check
civilize
clamor
clew
comprise
controller
councilor
criticize
cue
cupful
defense
dependent
development
dike
disguise
dispatch
distil
draft
drought
dulness
encyclopedia

PERMITTED

abridgement
acknowledgement
advertize
advize
embassador
amœba
analyse
anæmia
apprize
arbour
ardour
axe
behaviour
bolder
bunn
calibre
cancelled
candour
cañon
catalogue
centre
chastize
cheque
civilise
clamour
clue
comprize
comptroller
councillor
criticise
queue
cupfull
defence
dependant
developement
dyke
disguize
despatch
distill
draught
drouth
dullness
encyclopædia

PREFERRED

enterprise
 envelop
 equaled
 esthetic
 exercise
 favor
 felly
 fiber
 fulfil
 gage
 gaiety
 gantlet
 gelatin
 gild
 gipsy
 glycerin
 goiter
 goodbye
 gray
 honor
 humor
 harbor
 inclose
 indorse
 inquire
 instalment
 instil
 jeweler
 judgment
 kidnaper
 labeled
 labor
 license
 maneuver
 mediæval
 meter
 mold
 molt
 mustache
 odor
 offense
 oneself
 paraffin
 patronize
 pedler

PERMITTED

enterprize
 envelope
 equalled
 æsthetic
 exercize
 favour
 fellow
 fibre
 fulfill
 gauge
 gayety
 gauntlet
 gelatine
 guild
 gypsy
 glycerine
 goitre
 goodbye
 grey
 honour
 humour
 harbour
 enclose
 endorse
 enquire
 installment
 instill
 jeweller
 judgement
 kidnapper
 labelled
 labour
 licence
 manœuvre
 mediæval
 metre
 mould
 moult
 moustache
 odour
 offence
 one's self
 paraffine
 patronise
 pedlar

PREFERRED	PERMITTED
penciled	pencilled
plow	plough
pretense	pretence
program	programme
prolog	prologue
racket	racquet
resin	rosin
rumor	rumour
saber	sabre
scallop	scollop
scepter	sceptre
sirup	syrup
skillful	skilful
smolder	smoulder
somber	sombre
subpena	subpœna
surprise	surprize
sympathize	sympathise
tabu	taboo
theater	theatre
tumor	tumour
traveler	traveller
valor	valour
vapor	vapour
vender	vendor
whisky	whiskey
wilful	willful
wo	woe
woolen	woollen
worshiper	worshipper

149. The Question of Simplified Spelling

The confusion of one who is trying to learn to spell correctly is still further increased by the various reform movements which are under way. The reformers are by no means open to any charge of intentionally complicating matters. They are conscientiously striving to apply some logical principles to the welter of inconsistencies accumulated throughout the centuries, inconsistencies which are especially numerous and noticeable in a language as cosmopolitan as is English. But the immediate effect of spell-

ing reform agitation has been to produce in many immature minds the impression that spelling is "all a matter of opinion anyway." The student is too often inclined to feel that when great scholars disagree on the subject he is free to spell as he pleases. He fails to note that spelling reform is not merely a matter of setting one opinion against another. The question of spelling as it is and as it ought to be is worthy of careful study by every serious student. If the student concludes after careful consideration that he will cast his lot with the spelling reformers, it ought to be because he believes firmly in their effort to apply consistently throughout the whole language certain logical principles which will put spelling on a scientific basis.

The general principle underlying all efforts looking toward spelling reform is the substitution of spoken forms for written forms. "Spel as yu pronounce" is the slogan of the phonetic reformers. The following principles have been adopted by the Simplified Spelling Board as the basis of its recommendations:

1. When current usage offers a choice of spellings, to adopt the shortest and simplest.
2. Whenever practicable, to omit silent letters.
3. To follow the simpler rather than the more complex of existing analogies.
4. Keeping in view that the logical goal of the movement is the eventual restoration of English spelling to the fonetic basis from which in the corse of centuries and thru various causes it has widely departed, to propose no changes that ar inconsistent with that ideal.

Members of the Simplified Spelling Board and sympathizers with this movement hold that an application of these principles would result in making English spelling more correct, not only scientifically but also historically, since it was originally phonetic. They hold also that changes in spelling such as those which are recommended by the Board will tend to improve and to standardize pronunciation. They hold further that these changes will make it easier for every child to learn to spell correctly and that this will result in an enormous saving of time, effort, and money

throughout our educational system. Many individual scholars and a number of learned societies both in England and America have signified their approval of the aims of the Simplified Spelling Board. The National Educational Association has adopted and recommended the following list of twelve simplified forms: *catalog*, *decalog*, *demagog*, *pedagog*, *prolog*, *program*, *tho*, *altho*, *thoro*, *thorofare*, *thru*, *thruout*.

Such changes as are contemplated by the Simplified Spelling Board and the other reform organizations can come only gradually and will require a long period of time. Meanwhile each individual must settle for himself how far he will go in accepting the new forms which are proposed. Will he be an ultra-conservative and refuse to accept any modification of the old forms? This position he can hardly take, for there is a gradual process of change going on in the forms of English words, a process that has been going on since long before any reform organization began its work. Will he be a radical and fly at once to every new form just because it is new? This would hardly be a wise course to follow. Or will he try to maintain himself upon the middle ground, in an effort to apply Pope's advice:

Be not the first by whom the new is tried,
Nor yet the last to lay the old aside.

In arriving at an answer to these questions the writer of everyday English must take into account not only his own individual preferences but also the preferences of those for whom and to whom he writes. Are the people whom he is addressing thoroughly in sympathy with the reform movement or thoroughly opposed to it? The hired correspondent will be guided by the tastes of the customer whom he is addressing and by the orders of the employer for whom he works. The contributor will be guided by the policy of his publishers as revealed in previous publications. The use of simplified spelling, like most of the other problems met with in everyday English, is a practical matter to be settled by the individual writer in the light of the particular circumstances surrounding any given case.

150. Spelling Study Procedure

A diagnosis such as has been suggested in this chapter will reveal to any person the chief sources of his spelling difficulties. Unless you are the rare exception, the wholly irrational and inconsistent misspeller who errs one way to-day and another way to-morrow, you will find that your errors fall into a few rather clearly defined groups. Nearly everyone has a tendency to misspell certain words or certain types of words. You should first of all find out which words give you trouble.

When you have discovered your own peculiar spelling difficulties, you should apply yourself systematically to the task of eliminating your errors and of correcting your spelling habits. This is a task which you must accomplish for yourself. Utilize rules and principles insofar as they contribute to results in your case. But remember that no mere memorization of rules will effect a change in habits. And for any mature person who sets about to improve his spelling a change of certain spelling habits constitutes the principal part of the problem. Such persons will get the best results from the most direct approach and from a maximum of practice in writing the words. Study one word or one type of word at a time. Take that one word in through eye, ear, and hand. Get it thoroughly into your system. Then take another word or type of word and repeat the process. Go back occasionally and review your list and if possible have someone test you out on it by pronouncing the words to you and by having you spell them both orally and in writing. Through consistent and systematic effort you will soon eliminate your errors and effect a marked improvement in your spelling.

151. Some Spelling Test Results

That improvement in spelling will result from following systematically a plan such as that which has been outlined in this chapter is shown by the following facts gathered from a series of tests given to various university classes during a period of several years. The table is a summary showing the distribution of results in 2,097 tests of one

hundred words each. Compare your own case with the results presented in this table.

	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3	Test 4	Test 5	Test 6	Test 7	Totals
Below 50 ..	24	9	6	3	6	0	0	48
50—59	40	16	16	15	8	3	4	102
60—69	69	28	18	14	16	13	5	163
70—79	100	88	59	44	44	21	30	386
80—89	119	117	107	75	83	72	57	630
90—99	51	166	132	85	69	135	104	742
100	0	2	3	4	2	8	7	26
Total ...	403	426	341	240	228	252	207	2097
Lowest	19	37	37	38	38	55	53	19
Highest ...	98	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Average ...	71	81	84	83	84	89	90	83

152. Five Hundred Everyday Words

The following list contains five hundred everyday words which everyone should learn to spell correctly without hesitation. Master these words. You will need every one of them.

abbreviate	admissible	apparatus
absorption	aeroplane	appraisal
abstinence	affect	apprise
absurd	affidavit	approbation
abundant	affranchise	appropriation
academy	aggravate	aqueduct
accelerate	aggregate	arranging
accept	aggrieve	arrangement
accessible	agnostic	arrears
accessories	aisle	artificial
accidentally	alcohol	ascend
accommodate	allege	assent
accrue	allegiance	assessment
accumulation	allowance	assignment
acquainted	all right	athlete
acquitted	alphabet	athletics
acknowledgment	already	attendance
addressed	altogether	audacious
advantageous	amateur	audible
advisable	analyze	audience
adviser	analysis	autumn
admirable	ancient	auxiliary
anniversary	anxiety	awkward

baggage	collectible	decision
balance	commendable	defensible
Baptist	commission	deferred
bargain	committee	deficient
barrel	comparable	deficit
bazaar	complement	dependable
bearable	compliance	dependent
becoming	compliment	depreciate
beginning	comprehensible	desert
believing	comprise	descend
beneficiary	compromise	description
benefited	comptroller	desirable
bicycle	concede	desperate
biscuit	conceit	dessert
blamable	conceivable	deteriorate
bookkeeper	conclusive	destruction
boundary	condemn	development
bouquet	conducive	device
boulevard	confidant	devise
Britain	confident	dictionary
buoyant	confidentially	dining
bureau	Connecticut	diphtheria
business	conscious	disappear
calendar	conscientious	disappoint
campaign	consequence	disagreeable
canceling	consignee	disbursement
cancellation	consignor	discernible
candidate	consistency	discipline
canvas	contagious	disguise
canvass	controlled	dissatisfied
capital	controversy	dissipate
capitol	convenient	distribution
capricious	convertible	disturbance
carriage	correspondence	divisible
cashier	counterfeit	dormitories
casually	countersign	economical
cautious	courteous	ecstasy
cavalry	courtesy	eighth
celebrity	credentials	eligible
changeable	credible	eliminate
chargeable	creditable	emanate
chauffeur	creditor	embarrass
chautauqua	crisis	embezzlement
chocolate	criticize	emigrate
Cincinnati	customary	employee
collegiate	cylindrical	emphatically
colonel	debtor	emprise
column	deceit	endurable

energy	handle	laid
enterprise	handkerchief	latter
error	height	led
erroneous	herein	lenient
equipment	hindrance	liability
exaggerate	hopeful	license
exceed	hoping	lieutenant
excess	horizon	lightning
excise	humaneness	livelihood
excusable	hurriedly	lose
exhaust	hygiene	loose
exhibition	hyphen	lying
existence	hypocrisy	magazine
exorbitant	imitate	maintain
exorcise	immediately	maintenance
extraordinary	immigrant	maneuver
familiar	impossibility	manufacturer
fascination	impracticable	Massachusetts
feasible	impromptu	mathematics
February	improvise	meanness
fierce	inaugurate	medicine
Filipino	incidentally	mercantile
finally	inconceivable	miniature
financier	incredible	miscellaneous
forbear	incredulous	mischievous
forcible	indebtedness	Mississippi
forcing	indefinite	misspell
forehead	indispensable	misstep
foremost	indorsement	momentous
forfeit	ingenious	monetary
forgivable	ingenuous	monopoly
formally	install	murmur
formerly	instalment	mysterious
formidable	intercede	naive
forty-four	interruption	neither
franchise	irascible	negligible
fraudulent	irresistible	negotiable
frustrate	irresponsible	necessitate
generally	irrepressible	neutral
genial	irrigation	nickel
genuine	itemized	niece
gilt-edged	itself	nineteenth
government	jealousy	ninetieth
grandeur	jeopardize	ninety-eighth
grievous	judgment	ninth
guarantee	judicious	noticeable
guardian	justifiable	nowadays
guidance	laboratory	oblige

occasionally	proffer	subsidiary
obstacle	prohibition	succeed
occurrence	promiscuous	successful
o'clock	promissory	suitable
officiate	propagate	suite
omission	prophecy	summarize
omitted	psychology	supervise
opportunity	pursue	supersede
optimistic	quiet	surmise
option	quite	susceptible
original	receivable	suspicious
oscillate	receive	symmetry
overdue	recipient	syllable
pantomime	recognizable	systematic
paragraph	recognize	tacit
parallel	recommendation	tariff
parliament	reconcile	Tennessee
partner	redeemable	tingeing
past-due	reimburse	tolerable
peaceable	remittance	traceable
peculiar	reparation	transferable
pecuniary	reprehensible	transferred
penetrate	rescind	transient
Pennsylvania	restaurant	transmissible
permeable	resume	trespass
perception	revenue	unmanageable
peremptory	rheumatism	unmistakable
perennial	ridiculous	unnecessary
permissible	sandwich	until
perseverance	schedule	usable
perspiration	secretary	usually
persuade	seize	vacuum
phenomenon	self-addressed	valuable
Philippines	senatorial	variable
planned	sensible	vengeance
plausible	separate	vicinity
pleasant	sergeant	village
pneumatic	series	waive
possess	serviceable	weather
possession	sheriff	Wednesday
practicable	siege	whether
prairie	similar	winning
prejudice	simultaneous	wintry
premise	skilful	writing
principal	stationary	written
privilege	stationery	yield
probably	statute	zeros
proceed	strategy	zigzag
procedure	strenuous	zoology

CHAPTER XI

THE CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES

153. The Sentence as the Key to Composition

The sentence constitutes the fundamental unit of thought and is, therefore, the basis of all composition, both oral and written. The ability to make good sentences is an indispensable prerequisite to success in speaking or writing. The study of the nature of the sentence, the various forms which it may assume, and the principles which govern its construction is thus a very important matter for anyone who desires to use language with correctness and effectiveness. He who has developed an ability to construct good sentences will probably be able to master the problems involved in the construction of the larger units of discourse. On the other hand, he who cannot construct good sentences cannot possibly succeed in the construction of larger units, no matter what his other resources may be. It is of prime importance, therefore, that each person should devote to a study of the sentence such time and effort as will insure for him a thorough mastery of this essential element. Remember that the ability to construct good sentences is the key to all good composition.

154. What a Sentence Is

What is a sentence? It is, first of all, the smallest unit of thought. Words taken by themselves are the names of persons, or things, or ideas. These names taken separately do not involve any true process of thinking. It is only when we combine words in certain ways that our thought processes are stimulated and utilized. The word *stenographer*, for example, causes us to visualize more or less definitely some person or persons. The word *write* has a similar effect in causing us to visualize a certain action.

If we put these words together in the combination "Stenographers write," we express a thought.

The expression "Stenographers write" is a sentence. It contains a subject and a predicate and thus fulfils the minimum requirements of a sentence. The subject of a sentence is a word or a group of words naming the thing about which something is asserted. The predicate of a sentence is a word or a group of words making an assertion about the subject. The sentence may have an object, but this is not indispensable as is the subject or the predicate. We might say "Stenographers write letters," in which case *letters* represents the object. Any or all of these elements may have modifiers. We may modify the subject alone and say "All stenographers write letters." We may modify both subject and predicate as in the sentence "Many stenographers write their letters poorly." Or we may modify all three of the principal elements and say "Some stenographers always write good letters." Instead of being single words the modifiers may be groups of words as in the sentence "All stenographers who realize the importance of their work write as carefully as possible every letter to which they are assigned." Instead of being simple as in the foregoing examples, any or all of the principal sentence elements may be compound. In the sentence "All good stenographers and typists write and copy every letter and report with the greatest of care" the subject, the predicate, and the object are all compound. Each part of each compound element may be modified separately, either by single words or by groups of words. Each modifier may be further modified. Thus the sentence may be complicated almost indefinitely.

The thing for the student of composition to bear constantly in mind is that the sentence, whatever else it may contain, must have a subject and a predicate. This is doubtless what is meant by the many writers who have defined a sentence as "the expression of a complete thought in words." They do not mean that a single sentence exhausts all of the possibilities of an idea. They do mean that a sentence must be grammatically complete, that it must con-

tain the essential elements, namely, something said about something.

155. The Nature of Phrases

A sentence consists of words standing in certain definite relationships to one another. Besides their necessary relationships as subject, predicate, and object the words of a sentence may have other internal relationships to one another. These internal groupings of words are called phrases and clauses. A phrase is a group of related words having no subject and no predicate. Such a group of words is used in the same way that a single word is used. The group may be equivalent to a noun, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. In the sentence "A man of affairs must be able to express himself clearly" the phrase "A man of affairs" is used as the subject, that is, as a noun. In the sentence "The world is still paying for the war" the phrase "is still paying" is used as the predicate, that is, as a verb. In the sentence "Winter is the season of snow and ice" the phrase "of snow and ice" is used as a modifier of the noun *season*, that is, as an adjective. In the sentence "He sits in his easy chair" the phrase "in his easy chair" is used as a modifier of the verb *sits*, that is, as an adverb.

Phrases are also classified as prepositional phrases and participial phrases. Prepositional phrases are those which are introduced by prepositions or in which prepositions are used to show the relationship of the phrase to the sentence in which it occurs. "To town," "into the house," "under the tree," "upon the beach," "from the farm," "by the hour," and "in the book" are examples of prepositional phrases. Other phrases are called participial because they contain either a present participle, a verb form ending in *ing*, or a past participle, a verb form ending in *ed*. "Sitting at his desk," "writing steadily," "filled to capacity," and "opened before him" are examples of participial phrases.

The important thing to remember is that a phrase of whatever type or function is used as if it were a single word and that since it does not constitute the expression of a com-

plete thought a phrase can never be correctly set apart as if it were a sentence.

156. The Nature of Clauses

A clause is a group of words containing both a subject and a predicate. What is the difference, then, between a clause and a sentence? Sometimes there is no difference between them. An independent clause is, as the name implies, one which is capable either of standing alone or of forming a part of a larger whole. An independent clause not only has a subject and a predicate but has these elements in such a form that the clause makes good and complete sense if it is taken by itself. "Writing is a difficult art" and "The habit of reading good books should be cultivated" are independent clauses.

The clauses which give writers most trouble are not those which can stand alone as complete sentences but those which do not of themselves make good sense. Such a clause is called dependent because its meaning is incomplete until it is taken in its relationship to other parts of the sentence. Even though a dependent clause contains a subject and a predicate it is, like a phrase, a subordinate part of a sentence incapable of standing alone. Subordination in a clause is accomplished by means of a conjunction which indicates the relationship between this secondary group of words and the primary part of the sentence. "When I see him" is an example of a subordinate clause. This group of words makes no sense until we attach it to a grammatically complete assertion, as for example, "When I see him, I shall remind him of his debt."

Dependent clauses may be classified according to their function in a sentence. In the sentence "That we should learn to write correctly is very important" the clause "that we should learn to write correctly" is used as the subject and hence is called a noun clause. In the sentence "I wish that he would reply" the clause "that he would reply" is used as the object and is therefore called a noun clause. In the sentence "A man who has joys will also have sorrows" the clause "who has joys" is used as a modifier of the noun

“man” and hence is called an adjective clause. In the sentence “He hummed to himself as he continued his work” the clause “as he continued his work” is used as a modifier of the verb “hummed” and is therefore called an adverbial clause.

157. Simple, Compound, and Complex Sentences

Every sentence contains the same essential elements. But there are many and varied possibilities in the organization of these elements. Different combinations of the same essential parts produce different kinds of sentences. The first classification of sentences is that which grows out of the nature of clauses. According to this classification sentences are simple, compound, complex, or compound-complex.

A simple sentence is one that consists of a single independent clause, as for example, “The man went home.” It has only one subject and one predicate. Either or both of these elements may be compound and either or both may have modifiers. There may or may not be an object. The object may be compound and may have modifiers. The simple sentence is the earliest form used by individuals and by races. But even though it represents the primitive type the simple sentence may be given a rather complicated structure by the compounding of its parts and by the addition of modifiers.

A compound sentence is one that contains two or more independent clauses. These clauses are usually, but not invariably, joined by coordinating conjunctions. Some coordinating conjunctions such as *also*, *and*, *moreover* indicate similarity between the ideas which are joined. Others such as *but*, *however*, *yet* indicate opposition between the ideas. Some conjunctions such as *or*, *nor*, *either-or*, *neither-nor* indicate the possibility of a choice. Still others such as *accordingly*, *consequently*, *for*, *hence*, *therefore* indicate causal connection. “I dictated a letter and he wrote it” and “I went home but he stayed” are examples of the compound sentence. This form develops naturally from the simple sentence. It enables us to connect one idea to another and, within certain limits, to indicate the relationship

between these ideas. It may be complicated to a considerable extent by the compounding of parts and by the addition of modifiers.

A complex sentence is one that consists of one independent clause and at least one dependent clause, as for example, "Before he returned, his client had left." A dependent clause is joined to its principal clause by a subordinating conjunction, by an adverb, or by a pronoun. Many of these connectives indicate a time relationship, such as *after*, *as*, *before*, *since*, *until*, *when*, *whenever*, and *while*. Some of them indicate place, such as *where*, *wherever*, *whence*, and *whither*. Others indicate condition, such as *if*, *as if*, *whether-or*, and *provided that*. Concession is shown by such connectives as *although*, *as though*, *though*, *notwithstanding*, *even if*, and *in spite of*. Reason or cause is shown by *as*, *because*, *for*, *in that*, and *since*. Purpose is shown by *that*, *so that*, and *in order that*. Mastery of these connectives is essential to the writing of good sentences.

The complex sentence represents the highest type of sentence organization and offers the greatest opportunity for the expression of difficult and complicated thoughts. Whereas in the compound sentence we put all ideas on the same level and merely indicate agreement or antithesis between them, in the complex sentence we are able to distinguish many different kinds of relationship and many different shades of meaning. The complex form of the sentence is the most difficult to master and it is also the one that will most repay the writer for careful study.

A compound-complex sentence is one that combines the features of the compound with those of the complex sentence. It may be a compound sentence in which each of the principal clauses carries one or more subordinate clauses. For example, "There is no doubt that one's early surroundings play an important part in determining his future, but the manner in which one utilizes his opportunities is even more important." A compound-complex sentence may also consist of a union of two or more complex sentences in such a way that the principal clauses are coordinated. For example, "The letters which we write are important,

for they go to men who have much influence." Through the addition of compound elements, of clauses both independent and dependent, and of modifiers consisting of single words and groups of words, this type of sentence may be complicated almost without limit.

158. Other Sentence Classifications

Sentences may be classified according to the purpose which they serve. From this point of view sentences are declarative, imperative, interrogative, and exclamatory. A declarative sentence is one that asserts a fact, as for example, "The sky is clear." An imperative sentence is one that expresses a command, as for example, "Show me the way." An interrogative sentence is one that asks a direct question, as for example, "Why don't you answer?" An exclamatory sentence is one that expresses strong feeling, as for example, "Get out of my sight!"

Sentences may be classified as transitive or intransitive, depending upon the presence or absence of a direct object. A sentence that has a transitive verb and a direct object is called a transitive sentence, as for example, "He gave the letter to me." A sentence that has an intransitive verb, containing in itself the whole assertion of the predicate, is called an intransitive sentence, as for example, "The rain pours."

Sentences may be further classified as complete and elliptical. A complete sentence is one that contains not only the essential elements of subject and predicate but all words that are necessary to a formal expression of the thought. An elliptical sentence is one that omits some words which it is necessary to supply in making a grammatical analysis but which are implied so definitely that the meaning is perfectly clear. Conversation is full of elliptical sentences, as for example, "Got a match?" "Thanks."

Books on rhetoric commonly classify sentences as loose and periodic. A loose sentence is one that could be ended, so far as grammatical completeness is concerned, before the period is reached. Consider, for example, the following sentence from a booklet for correspondents: "Favors to

customers should be granted, not grudgingly, but pleasantly, without hesitation or fault-finding, unless the favor asked is unreasonable, or too frequent." In this sentence we might put a period after *granted*, or after *pleasantly*, or after *fault-finding*, or after *unreasonable*. In any of these cases we should still have a grammatically complete construction. A periodic sentence, on the other hand, is one in which the sense is held suspended until the very end. Consider this example from the same booklet: "As capitals, except for proper nouns, are for the purpose of emphasis, they lose force and defeat their own purpose when used too freely." Within this sentence there is no point at which we could place a period and have a grammatically complete construction.

It will readily be seen that compound sentences are always loose; whereas complex sentences may be either loose or periodic, depending upon the arrangement of the clauses. In order to secure the suspended effect of the periodic sentence it is necessary to place the subordinate clauses at the beginning and to reserve the principal clause for the end. Note how this is accomplished in the following sentence: "When I have the time, when I have the money, when I have arranged all of my affairs, I shall go."

We do not mean, of course, that every sentence which you write should be declarative, or transitive, or periodic. All sentence forms have their appropriate places and uses. We do mean that the mastery of all of these forms is important. The manner in which he uses and combines these sentence forms determines in a large measure the individual style of any writer.

159. Principles of Sentence Construction

A sentence is a vehicle by means of which a thought is transferred from one mind to another. A good sentence is one that conveys its particular thought clearly and effectively and at the same time fits in well with its neighbors, the sentences preceding and following it. Unless a sentence is *thoroughly* clear to the hearer or reader, it fails to accomplish its purpose. Unless it is *readily* clear, it falls short of

being a good sentence. The maker of a sentence has no right to impose upon his audience the necessity of ferreting out his meaning. He should assume and fulfil his obligation to make his meaning entirely and easily understood.

In addition to making his sentences clear, the writer should strive to make every one of his sentences effective to the highest possible degree. He should make every sentence that he uses the best possible sentence for conveying its particular thought. There is a best way of expressing any given idea, and the writer should seek to find that way. He should consider, moreover, the relation of each individual sentence to the sentences among which it occurs. Sentences are commonly employed, not as isolated units but as parts of larger units of communication. Each sentence should be an integral part of the larger unit to which it belongs, as necessary as a stone in a wall or a link in a chain.

How can we make our sentences clear and effective? We must, first of all, have some meaning to convey. It is a great fallacy to regard a sentence as a merely objective thing to be handled like a box or a barrel. It is well to remember always that the process of sentence making is an effort to give tangible form to the most intangible thing in the world, namely, an idea. If there is no idea there will be no genuine sentence, no matter how much artistry is employed in combining words. When we have an idea to express and are seeking to make that idea readily intelligible to other minds, we can find guidance and help in certain principles of composition which have been formulated by writers after much study and experience. We shall consider these principles in succeeding sections.

160. Correctness in the Sentence

A sentence must first of all be correct. It must contain the essential elements, a subject and a predicate. The crudest of all sentence errors is that of setting apart, as if it were a separate sentence, a phrase or a dependent clause. This error, sometimes called "the period fault," occurs most often in connection with participial phrases, as for example, "He did not reply at once. Being too busy." These

words plainly constitute one sentence. A capital letter at the beginning and a period at the end are not sufficient to convert any group of words into a sentence. Sometimes dependent clauses are similarly separated from their principal clauses and erroneously made to stand alone, as for example, "He will certainly succeed. Since he has prepared himself thoroughly." Here also the extra capital letter and period should be stricken out, for these words constitute only one sentence.

Almost as crude as the period fault is the error of running one sentence into another without recognizing the need of stopping and taking a fresh start. This error is called "the comma fault," because in its most frequent form it consists of the substitution of a comma for a period, as for example, "He receives twenty letters a day, he answers every letter the day it is received."

These crude errors in sentence construction are, fortunately, not very common. But there are others which, even though they are less crude, are not to be tolerated either in speech or in writing. A sentence must be in every way grammatically correct. There must be agreement between the subject and the predicate. Verbs always agree in number with their subjects. This rule needs to be remembered especially when the subject and its verb are separated by intervening words as in this sentence: "Letters and reports, this fact I cannot urge upon you too strongly, *are* important vehicles of modern business." No matter what predicate noun follows it, the verb depends upon the subject and is governed by it as in this sentence: "The important thing to remember in all writing *is* the principles of composition."

The question of correctness in grammatical number arises often in sentence construction. Verbs controlled by collective nouns may be either singular or plural, depending upon the sense. We may say "The company *has* a very definite policy," or we may say "The company *have* expressed themselves unanimously in favor of the plan." The presence of such expressions as *together with* or *as well as* does not change the number of a subject or its verb. "The manager,

together with twenty of his men, *has* profited by the change." "The home office, as well as many district and local agencies, *has* found this plan to be satisfactory." On the other hand, words like *each*, *every*, *either*, and *neither* always make singular the subject which they modify. "Each one of you *has* a chance to be promoted." "Every workman *shares* in the earnings of the company." "Either John or Joe *is* going to be promoted." "Neither speaking nor writing *is* an easy matter if it is done correctly."

161. Clearness of Reference in the Sentence

One of the simple grammatical rules which we have all learned at some time or other says that pronouns must agree with their antecedents. It is obviously wrong to say "The paper predicts rain. They are often wrong in their predictions." Pronouns must, moreover, have definite and expressed antecedents. In the example just given we do not know whether *they* refers to newspapers or to the persons who forecast the weather. Even when the antecedent is expressed and the pronoun is correct in number the meaning may be obscured by their distance from one another. Clearness of reference can be attained first, by using a pronoun only when the antecedent has been definitely and recently expressed, and secondly, by making the pronoun agree unmistakably with that antecedent. Pronouns should never be used to refer to whole ideas as in this sentence: "Some letters are altogether too long, which makes one throw them away without reading." *Which fact* instead of *which* would correct this particular fault. Or we might say: "Letters which are too long are liable to be thrown away before they are read."

The problem of securing clearness of reference in all modifiers and dependent parts is one that requires careful attention. Participial constructions seem to give beginners the most trouble. "Being a high hill, I sat down to rest" is a typical example of this class of error. According to grammatical rule a participial construction is governed by the main subject of the sentence, that is, the subject of the principal clause. In the example just cited the main sub-

ject is *I*. What the sentence says, then, is "I, being a high hill, sat down to rest." Shifting the participial construction so that it follows immediately the main subject is a good method of testing its correctness. If we apply this test to the following sentences, we see at once the nature of the error: "Having forgotten the combination, the safe could not be opened." "In talking with our customers, they say these are real bargains." There are two modes of revision for such dangling modifiers. We may insert the proper subject in the dependent part, or we may so revise this part that it will be in thorough agreement with the main clause and the main subject. Do not get the false notion that elliptical and participial constructions are always wrong. Such constructions are entirely legitimate and often furnish the best means of avoiding awkward repetitions. But such constructions must be correctly related to the principal clause.

162. Completeness in the Sentence

Sentences must be logically complete as well as grammatically complete if they are to be clear and effective. Each sentence must include all that is necessary to the expression of its particular thought and must exclude everything else. The principle of completeness is violated either by making the sentence contain too little or too much. The latter violation is by far the more common of the two. There is no arbitrary standard by which we can measure every sentence to determine whether or not it is complete. Completeness is not dependent upon the form into which a sentence is cast. A periodic sentence may be as complete as a loose sentence. Nor is sentence completeness a matter of length. A short sentence may be complete for its particular purpose, and the longest sentence may have as much unity as the shortest.

The proper form and length of a given sentence will be determined by the idea being expressed, by the purpose which the writer has in view, and by the other circumstances of the case. But we are more liable to err in some sentences than in others. If we should confine ourselves always to the

use of short and simple sentences, the problem of attaining unity would not be a very difficult one. It is when we use sentences containing several parts of various degrees of importance that the real problem arises. If these several parts are not closely and logically related, they should not be included in the same sentence. Sometimes the separate parts should be cast into separate sentences. Perhaps some of the parts should be excluded altogether. If the various parts are in reality so closely related as to constitute one organic whole, they must be carefully organized in order to bring out clearly their relationship.

163. The Organization of Parts in a Sentence

Careful organization of parts is essential to clearness and effectiveness in sentence structure. The position of words and groups of words is doubly important in an uninflected language such as modern English. In a Latin sentence the inflectional endings of the words prevent any misinterpretation of the writer's meaning. But in modern English the same group of words can be made to convey several very different meanings simply by shifting its position in the sentence.

Careful organization means, in the first place, a subject followed by a predicate, and perhaps by an object, as for example, "The pitcher throws the ball." As soon as we introduce modifiers of any or all of the essential elements the problem of organization becomes more difficult. We may say, for example, "The good pitcher usually throws the ball over the plate." When there are a number of modifiers and when some of these consist of single words and others consist of groups of words the complexity leads to greater difficulties in organization. Consider, for example, this sentence: "The truly good pitcher, so we are told by one who is supposed to know, is he who with unfailing accuracy throws the ball, not over the plate, but so nearly over it that the umpire is forced to call a strike, and yet so far away that the batter will consider it foolish to reach for the ball."

Whether the modifiers consist of single words or groups of words the fundamental principle of organization is the

same. Modifiers should be so placed as to leave no room for doubt and no chance of misinterpretation. This means, in general, that modifiers should be placed as near as possible to the words modified. Whether they should precede or follow must be determined by trial and experiment. Here as elsewhere in sentence construction the best available test is that of reading the sentence aloud and of trying out orally several possible versions. Such a procedure will do much toward insuring smoothness and effectiveness of sentence structure.

There are a few specific rules concerning the position of modifiers and the order of parts in a sentence. Relative clauses should as a rule immediately follow their antecedents, as for example, "Letters which are dictated are liable to contain stringy sentences." The adverbs *almost*, *hardly*, *merely*, *nearly*, *scarcely*, and *only* should be placed with especial care. By varying the position of one of these words one may give the same sentence several different meanings. Note in the following sentences how a change in the position of the word *only* affects the meaning:

1. Only I urged him to attempt it.
2. I only urged him to attempt it.
3. I urged only him to attempt it.
4. I urged him only to attempt it.
5. I urged him to attempt only it.
6. I urged him to attempt it only.

Do not place any modifiers between the parts of an infinitive. This rule is often violated as in the following example: "He hopes to surely finish this week." When the infinitive is split by a group of words the result is even more awkward. Avoid any such arrangement of parts as this: "He wanted to without apology and without fear proceed on his own way."

Beware of using a modifier which may have two grammatical applications in the same sentence, as for example, "He usually took a walk about the time the stars came out and went to bed." Do not make the same modifier do

double duty unless it is both grammatically and logically capable of doing so. Avoid such a construction as "He has a great desire and deep interest in making a success of it." Awkward constructions such as the foregoing can usually be remedied by shifting the position of the modifier or by rephrasing a part of the sentence. The same modifier may be applied to two or more parts of a sentence if the relationship is brought out correctly and clearly. When it is your deliberate intention to use a modifier in a double capacity, make sure that both the grammatical and the logical relations are clear. Remember Solomon Grundy's cross construction: "Rats and gentlemen catched and waited on and all other jobs performed."

164. Parallelism in the Sentence

The proper placing of modifiers and other parts in short, simple sentences is a relatively easy matter. It is in complex sentences of some length that the problem appears with all of its difficulties. You can secure organization in these sentences by studying carefully the clauses which they contain, by arranging these clauses in the most logical order, and by relating them through the use of the most appropriate connectives. You must take care to distinguish between coordinate sentence parts and subordinate parts and to make the proper use of coordinating and subordinating connectives.

Sentence parts which are similar in purpose and equal in importance are made more effective if they are cast into similar form. This principle of parallelism applies both to phrases and to clauses. It applies with particular force to the clauses of a compound sentence. Notice how the principle is applied in numerous biblical sentences, such as, "He that observeth the wind shall not sow; and he that regardeth the clouds shall not reap." Such a sentence, consisting of two equal parts, is called a balanced sentence. The principle of parallelism may be utilized in any sentence which contains a series of similar parts of whatever rank, as for example, in this series of dependent adverbial clauses: "When he had dined, when he had walked, and when he

had slept, he finally let his visitor in." This principle may be utilized also in a series of phrases as in this sentence: "He is always careful of his penmanship, of his spelling, and of his grammar."

In sentences such as those just cited the structural similarity of the parts helps to emphasize the similarity of function and of meaning. The correlative conjunctions *either-or* and *neither-nor* play an important part in structural similarity. *Either* should always be followed by *or*, and *neither* by *nor*. Correlatives should occupy corresponding positions in the sentence elements. If *either* is followed by a verb, *or* should also be followed by a verb, as for example, "You must either make progress or suffer deterioration." If *neither* is followed by a noun, *nor* should likewise be followed by a noun, as for instance, "Neither winter nor summer is without its joys for a healthy person." If a phrase is used after the first of the correlatives, a phrase should be used after the second, as in this sentence: "We have no control either of the future or of the past." If the first of the correlatives is followed by a clause, the second should similarly be followed by a clause, as in this example: "It must be proved either that he is inefficient or that he is dishonest."

165. The Point of View in a Sentence

The preservation of a single, definite point of view throughout the sentence is indispensable to good organization. No sentence will be effective which begins from one point of view and then abruptly changes to another point of view as does this one: "I was in a hurry; the safe would not be opened; and the train whistled." The writer should have decided in advance whether this sentence could best be expressed from the point of view of the man, of the safe, or of the train, and then he should have stuck to that view consistently to the end.

Consider this sentence from a correspondence course advertisement: "Instruction is given in all of these branches and the student is taught to do things for himself and when the course is completed you will be able to apply your

knowledge at once." This sentence needs to be rewritten. It should assume either the viewpoint of the instruction or the viewpoint of the student and should maintain that viewpoint throughout. It might read, "Instruction is given in all of these branches in such a way that the student is taught to do things for himself and in such a way as to develop his ability to apply his knowledge at once." If he adopts the viewpoint of the student in this sentence, the writer must determine further whether he will use the third person or the second. The sentence might read, "The student is given instruction in all of these branches; he is taught to do things for himself; and when he completes the course he is able to apply his knowledge at once." But in most everyday writing the second person is preferable because it is more effective. The best way to present the idea of that advertisement would be as follows: "You are given instruction in all of these branches. You are taught to do things for yourself. You will be able upon the completion of your course to apply your knowledge at once."

166. Emphasis in the Sentence

The principle of emphasis or mass is important in the construction of good sentences. A sentence may be intelligible even if it begins in some remote corner of an idea and rambles on like a brook in a meadow, stopping to make side trips and to form puddles along the way. But a sentence that is constructed in this manner will inevitably lose much of its possible effectiveness. In formal discourse such a sentence will not be accepted.

Most of us are unaware of the extent to which we double on ourselves and take liberties with proper sentence structure in daily conversation. An exact written reproduction of our conversation for a single day would doubtless reveal some startling facts. Many of us would find among our sentences some like the following, and perhaps some even worse: "I was reading the other day— isn't it queer how one thing will suggest another? which is a good bromidic remark, isn't it?—according to the classification of—who

was it that said 'All expressions are either bromidic or—' what's the other word?—some chemical term—I never could remember those chemical terms—or any scientific terms, for that matter—which reminds me that I started to tell you about that new invention I was reading about the other day—did you see it?—it certainly is a wonderful thing—I wonder what will be the end of all this scientific progress anyway—with all our wireless and flying and machine guns and poison gas—what will become of us all anyway—and they are talking about the next war!''

Whatever excuse might be offered for such a rambling construction as the foregoing when it is used in conversation, it could never be justified in written discourse. We demand of the writer that he have some plan in his construction. We insist that he have a definite beginning and that he make some real progress toward an evident goal. If the writer is interested in using his opportunities, he will not be satisfied with anything less than the most direct and the most forceful expression of each idea. The careful writer endeavors to give to each idea precisely the degree of emphasis which it deserves. If it is his purpose in a particular sentence to mention a new scientific invention he will not bury the words which tell of the invention deep in the middle of the sentence. By putting these words near the beginning or the end of his sentence, he will give them the prominence which they deserve.

It is a well-known fact that those words which are nearest the periods on a printed page attract the reader's eye more than do the words in the middle of a sentence. From this fact, which anyone can verify for himself at any time, it follows that the words at the beginning and end of sentences get more of the reader's attention than do any other words. The skilful writer utilizes his knowledge of this fact. He places in the positions of greatest prominence those words which state and suggest his meaning most effectively. The periodic sentence owes its effectiveness, at least in part, to the fact that it is built upon this principle of emphasis. In the periodic sentence the meaning is held suspended until the very end of the sentence is reached. This effect is ac-

complished by reserving for the end the words essential to complete the meaning. Consider the following example: "As the sunbeams, united in a burning glass to a point, have greater force than when they are darted from a plain superficies, so the virtues and actions of one man, drawn together in a single story, strike upon our minds a stronger and more lively impression than the scattered relation of many men and many actions." An especially emphatic form is the climactic sentence, in which the thoughts are arranged in the order of increasing importance. In any form of sentence, emphasis is secured by such a careful selection of words and such a careful arrangement of parts as will reveal accurately the shades of meaning and the relative importance of every thought.

167. Economy in the Sentence

Every word that is used in writing should be essential to conveying the writer's meaning to the reader. The greatest literary masters practise the most rigid economy in the use of words. We find it almost impossible to strike a single word from an essay by Bacon or Emerson or Stevenson without impairing the meaning. Word economy is no less important in everyday forms of writing. He who is to convey his message within the narrow limits of a letter or an advertisement must carefully select his words with a view to getting a maximum of result with a minimum of materials. The higher the cost of the space being used the greater is the need for careful selection. And then there is the reader, who should never be forgotten. That writer is unwise, to say the least, who demands from his reader the time and effort required to dig out meanings from under heaps of surplus words. The best advertisers have learned that the reader will not go very far out of his way in order to discover their meanings. They are giving careful attention to every device for economizing the reader's time as well as their own.

There is, to be sure, a danger in brevity. One must use enough words. This means not merely enough words to make the meaning clear to the writer but enough to insure

unmistakable clearness to the reader. Our desire to be saving of our words should not be allowed to lead us into writing in the form of notes. We must avoid merely sketching in the rough what should be given life through details and illustrations. It is not sufficient that our meaning is present and capable of being ferreted out by one who has enough time and patience and interest to do this. The writer is under obligation to make himself clear, and if he wishes to be thoroughly successful in his task he must make himself so clear that there is no chance for misunderstanding. He must make sure not only that he has conveyed all of his meaning but also that he has conveyed no possibility of any other meaning.

Brevity is not economy if it leaves room for misunderstanding. There are plenty of errors in everyday writing which are due to excessive brevity. Many an inquiry fails to bring the desired information because the inquirer did not take enough pains to express his meaning with clearness and completeness. Many an order is held up or not filled at all because the orderer was not specific enough in designating exactly what he wanted. Our law records are full of cases which got into court because someone forgot to include a certain provision in his contract or in his will or because he took that provision for granted and did not trouble to make a definite statement concerning it.

Many people are inclined toward the opposite fault, that of using more words than are justified by their meaning. It is usually because their meaning is not very clear in their own minds that they employ so many words in stating it. If we try to express an idea before we have thought it through, the resulting statements will naturally be roundabout and wordy. Under such circumstances we are very apt to repeat both our ideas and our words and thus to indulge in uneconomical duplication. Useless repetition of ideas is technically known as tautology, a name which comes from two Greek words meaning "to say the same." "He received a great reception" is a typical instance of tautology. Some other everyday examples are: "Repeat it again," "Then we returned back," "It is perfectly all

right," "They have combined together," "He has great equanimity of temper," "This is a necessary requisite," "Here is the biography of his life," "Please indorse on the back," "It is a new creation," "I got many good benefits from the course," and "These are important essentials."

How can one practice economy in the use of words and avoid saying either more or less than he intends? Anyone who desires to achieve this result must think logically, must become a master of synonyms, must use all words with precision, and must revise his work conscientiously. In the process of revision no method is better for revealing the difficulty and for suggesting the remedy than that of reading the sentences aloud. The ear will often detect superfluous words and ineffective repetitions which escape the eye.

168. Variety in Sentence Structure

No matter how good a sentence may be, it inevitably has its limitations. The best sentence ever constructed would not serve as a model for a half dozen sentences in succession. In sentences as in all other things the mind demands variety. A story or an article in which all the sentences were of identically the same length would be intolerable even though that particular length might be ideal for some specific purpose. In the hands of a master an unbroken series of long sentences may produce an effect of loftiness and dignity. In the hands of an amateur such a series is in danger of producing an impression of slowness and heaviness. A series of short sentences skilfully handled may arouse a feeling of rapidity and vivacity. But if handled clumsily such a series is more apt to convey an impression of abruptness. If it is the writer's chief purpose upon a given occasion to secure an effect of loftiness, let him employ the long sentence. If for particular reasons he desires to create an impression of speed, let him employ the short sentence. But in the bulk of his everyday writing he will do best to refrain from using many succeeding sentences of exactly the same length.

The principle of skilful and judicious variety should be

applied also to the form of succeeding sentences. A long series of sentences cast into the same structural mold will result in such monotony as to drive away all but the most eager of readers. Skilfully handled, the repetition of a certain structural form may be a very effective device for securing emphasis. But this device is open to grave dangers and in the hands of beginners often results in such awkwardness as to spoil entirely the desired effect. He who is to be successful in this art must make himself a master of the principle of adaptation. He must be able to see and to supply exactly what is needed in each particular case.

Monotonous effect may result from repeated use of the same introductory words or the same connectives or the same transitional phrases. We tolerate in speech many repetitions which we do not tolerate in writing. Some of the connecting words which are most abused are: *and*, *and then*, *again*, *maybe*, *now*, *so*, *then*, *well*, and *why*. *And* is probably the most overworked of all English words. Recognizing this fact, all those who have the welfare of our language at heart are warning against the loose and stringy construction of sentences superficially connected by *and*. We still have a long way to go in ridding our speech of this defect, but we have made considerable progress in eradicating it from our written discourse. Consider, for example, whether or not this sentence, written less than a century ago, would be acceptable in a contemporary journal:

And then those who are of an inferior condition, and they labour and be diligent in the work of an honest calling, for this is privately good and profitable unto men and to their families; and to those who are above this necessity, and are in better capacity to maintain good works properly so called, works of piety, and charity and justice; and they be careful to promote and advance them, according to their power and opportunity, because these things are publicly good and beneficial to mankind.

169. Naturalness in the Sentence

It is well-nigh impossible for the mind to attend at the same moment both to the idea which it is seeking to express and to the manner of expression. In this double task lies the

chief difficulty of composition, the difficulty which will forever keep composition from becoming an exact science. The ability to carry this double burden is the thing that distinguishes the literary artist from the amateur. The beginner is apt to find himself either so absorbed in his thought that he fails to take into account the hearer or reader whom he is trying to reach, or so absorbed in his methods of communication that he sacrifices to these a part of the vitality of his idea. The avoidance of both of these dangers requires all of the skill and all of the tact that a writer can summon. It is, obviously, a fundamental mistake to sacrifice ends to means, or ideas to methods. A safe neglect of methods, on the other hand, is possible only to one who has already achieved a mastery of those methods.

The beginner in any art must obey strictly the rules of that art, even though the resulting product be of an inferior quality and even though the inferiority seems to be the result of his obedience to the rules. Conscious and deliberate application of the principles of sentence structure will almost certainly produce, in the beginning, some artificiality of style. Does this fact justify one in setting aside those principles and in proceeding according to his own sweet will? Plainly it does not. Correctness and completeness his sentences must have. These requirements of the sentence are governed by definite and established laws which he is in no way privileged to violate. Furthermore, if a sentence is to be of any value it must be clear. Will a conscious effort to achieve clearness through recognized methods of sentence organization result in greater clearness? In most instances it will, especially if the finer points of organization are reserved for the process of revision instead of being attempted during the original construction of the sentence. Forcefulness and emphasis a sentence should also have if it is to serve its purpose well. These qualities will likewise be improved by a deliberate focussing of attention upon the make-up of the sentence and by careful revision directed by a developed capacity for self-criticism.

When the beginner has expended enough conscious ef-

fort upon the application of the principles to have made them a part of his mental equipment he will no longer be a beginner. As an experienced writer he may then give his attention almost wholly to the idea which he is trying to express, for he will have the assurance that means and methods will very largely care for themselves. He may then strive for originality of expression rather than for conformity with established usages. He may then occasionally indulge in departures from the commonly accepted forms. But until he has achieved this mastery the learner must respect the established laws and principles of good sentence structure.

CHAPTER XII

PRACTICAL PUNCTUATION

170. The Relation of Punctuation to Meaning

“We guarantee satisfaction on all goods which we take special pains to send out in good condition.” What does the writer of this sentence mean? Does he mean that satisfaction is guaranteed only on such goods as are sent out in good condition? Or does he mean that satisfaction is guaranteed only on those goods which are sent out in good condition after a special inspection? Or does he mean that satisfaction is guaranteed on all goods and that all goods are sent out in good condition and that this good condition is insured by a special inspection in each case? His sentence may be legitimately read in any one of these three ways. The last of the three possible meanings is probably the one which the writer intended to express. In order to convey this meaning unmistakably and leave no room for misinterpretation he needs a comma preceding the word *which*. This comma shows that the clause “which we take special pains to send out in good condition” is non-restrictive, that is, that it does not limit the word *goods* but contains a new and separate thought. Through the simple addition of this comma we make the last clause apply to all goods instead of applying only to some particular portion of them.

In the sentence quoted above, as in many other sentences in everyday writing, the absence of punctuation marks leaves the reader free to choose between two or more possible interpretations. If there is a practical difference between these interpretations, the reader will naturally be inclined to adopt that one which appeals most to his self-interest. The writer will then have to undertake the unpleasant task of apologizing and of explaining and of mak-

ing good any evil consequences which may have resulted from his failure to assume the writer's obligation of making his meaning clear. The failure of the writer to assume this natural obligation leads sometimes to such difficulties as those experienced by a certain tavern keeper who fed and housed a wayfarer and got a good beating for his pains. The guest, so the story runs, having enjoyed the hospitality of the tavern to his heart's content, was about to depart with never a word in regard to paying the cost. Upon being confronted at the door by the tavern keeper, he merely pointed at the sign which swung above the tavern door. This sign read:

What do you think
Here for no gold youll find
Victuals and drink

But the tavern keeper was still unsatisfied. He saw nothing in his sign which would excuse the guest from paying his bill. The guest, on the other hand, saw in those words an invitation to partake of the hospitality of the house without payment. And so they quarreled, and fought, and finally came to terms, after learning that their troubles had all been due to different readings of the unpunctuated sign. The guest had very naturally read:

What do you think!
Here for no gold you'll find
Victuals and drink.

The host insisted that he had always intended the sign to read:

What! Do you think
Here for no gold you'll find
Victuals and drink?

171. Punctuation and the Law

Men do not often come to blows over the presence or absence of punctuation marks in their sentences, but they do often get into court. Matters of punctuation have been involved in numerous cases tried by our courts. In some cases punctuation marks have been the chief factor in de-

termining the final decision. Punctuation marks have played a very important part in the legal interpretation of many contracts, deeds, wills, bonds, affidavits, insurance policies, ordinances, and statutes.

In the Massachusetts case of *Prouty et al. v. Union Hardware Co.*, 57 N. E. 352, the decision turned upon the absence of a comma. A manufacturer contracted with the patentee of certain skates to make and sell these skates on a royalty basis. Included in the contract was this provision: "If in any year the royalty shall not amount to \$500, then the manufacturer will either pay to patentee \$500 as liquidated royalty, or will submit to the cancellation of this license at the option of the party of the first part." The patentee as plaintiff held that, the royalty having fallen below \$500, he had the option of demanding \$500 as liquidated royalty or of demanding the cancellation of the license. He read the provision as if there were a comma after the word *license*. The manufacturer as defendant held that the option applied only to the last item, namely, the cancellation of the license. The court held for the defendant. Had there been a comma after the word *license*, the last phrase, "at the option of the party of the first part," would have applied to both preceding clauses and the patentee would have won his case. The absence of that comma excluded him from the remedy which he sought.

In the Massachusetts case of *Best v. Nagle*, 65 N. E. 842, the deed provided that there should be erected on the land specified no building of value less than \$4,000, none nearer than 20 feet to the street, none to be used for tenements, and none to be used for any manufacturing purposes, for the period of ten years. The question here was whether the time limitation at the end applied only to the clause concerning manufacturing purposes, which immediately preceded it, or whether it applied equally to each and all of the preceding parts. The court held that the comma found before the time limitation made this limitation not a part of the clause just preceding but a modifier of each and every member of the series. A similar case with a similar decision is *in re Welsh*, 55 N. E. 1043.

The legal interpretation of wills has involved more questions of punctuation than has the interpretation of any other kind of instrument. Litigation in this field brings vividly before us the general ignorance concerning correct punctuation and the practical value of a knowledge of at least the more ordinary usages. In the Maryland case of *Olivet v. Whitworth*, 33 Atlantic 723, the disposition of a large estate depended wholly upon the punctuation in a deed of trust made by the deceased shortly before her marriage. By this deed of trust she instructed her trustees to pay over the estate to her upon her arrival at the age of twenty-one, or if she had in the meantime died, to such person as she might "by last will and testament, or by instrument in the nature of a will executed in the presence of two witnesses, limit, nominate, and appoint." Later she made a holographic will, valid in her domicile but unwitnessed, leaving her entire estate to her husband. After her death, which occurred shortly, there was long litigation between the husband and relatives of the deceased. The husband lost in the lower court but appealed and won in the higher court. The central question of the whole controversy was whether or not the holographic will was valid without two witnesses. In other words, did the requirement of two witnesses apply only to an "instrument in the nature of a will," or did it apply also to the preceding words, "last will and testament?" The court, finally taking judicial cognizance of the presence of the comma after "testament" and the absence of any comma after "in the nature of a will," held that two witnesses were required only for the latter, and gave judgment for the husband on this ground.

Even legislators sometimes fail to make their meaning unmistakably clear. Questions of punctuation have arisen frequently in connection with cases involving the interpretation of statutes. In the Massachusetts case of *Martin v. Gleason*, 29 N. E. 664, the source and hence the purity of the drinking water of the City of Boston was found to depend upon the punctuation of an old Massachusetts law. In another Massachusetts case, that of *Commonwealth v.*

Kelly, 58 N. E. 691, a semicolon determined the court's decision on the proper interpretation of a state liquor law. The statute here involved read as follows: "No sale of spirituous or intoxicating liquor shall be made between the hours of 12 at night and 6 in the morning; nor on the Lord's day, except that if the licensee is also licensed as an inn holder, he may supply such liquor to guests who have resorted to his house for food and lodgings." The specific question was, does the exception for inn holders apply only to the phrase "nor on the Lord's day," which follows the semicolon, or does it apply also to the phrase "between the hours of 12 at night and 6 in the morning," which precedes the semicolon? The Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts held that the exception applied only to the last antecedent and did not carry back over the semicolon. This decision was sustained in another case, that of Commonwealth v. Sutcliffe, 58 N. E. 691.

A great issue hung upon the proper interpretation of the punctuation marks in the Massachusetts case of Maney v. Providence & Worcester Railroad Co., 37 N. E. 164. The question at issue was the right of railroad companies to land adjoining railways under the statutory provision for ownership through adverse possession. The statute involved was long and complicated and its meaning was dependent almost entirely upon several commas, as was also the decision of the Supreme Court, which held that the state's provision for adverse possession applied only to lands acquired by right of eminent domain and not to lands subsequently acquired by other means. This decision was sustained in the case of Mathews *et al.* v. Providence & Worcester Railroad Co., 37 N. E. 164.

The Ohio case of Hamilton v. Steamboat *R. B. Hamilton*, 16 Ohio St. 439, was occasioned entirely by the commas in an Ohio statute which provided that "All steamboats and other water-craft, of twenty tons burden and upward, navigating the waters within or bordering upon this state, shall be liable, and such liability shall be a lien thereon, for all debts contracted on account thereof, by the master, owner, steward, consignee, or other agent . . ." What

did the makers of this law mean? Did they mean that all steamboats of twenty tons burden and upward, and all other water-craft of twenty tons burden and upward should be liable as specified? Or did they mean that all steamboats, regardless of their tonnage, and only such other water-craft as had a tonnage of twenty and upward should be liable? After long wrestling with this question, the Supreme Court of Ohio concluded that the latter was the correct interpretation, namely, that the liability extended to all steamboats and to some other water-craft, *i.e.*, such other water-craft as had a tonnage of twenty and upward.

In another Ohio case, that of *Allen v. Russell*, 39 Ohio St. 336, the decision turned upon the use of commas in a statute dealing with homestead exemptions. The particular provision here involved was: "Every widower having an unmarried child or children residing with him as part of his family, and every widow, shall have the benefit of this act." The question at issue was whether or not the qualification concerning unmarried children applied to widows as well as to widowers. The Supreme Court of Ohio held that the commas before and after the words "and every widow" remove those words from the limitation which precedes, and give every widow the full benefit of this act whether she is residing with unmarried children or not. Other Ohio cases in which the punctuation of statutes has been involved are *Albright v. Payne*, 1 N. E. 20, and *Pancoast v. Ruffin*, 1-2 Ohio 381.

The New York case known as *Squire's case*, 12 Abbot Pr. 43, furnishes another interesting instance of the importance of commas in a statute. A law known as the "Metropolitan Police Act" provided that "no person holding office under this act shall be liable to military or jury duty, nor to arrest on civil process, or to service of subpoenas from civil courts, while actually on duty." The question involved was, does the last phrase, "while actually on duty," apply only to the immediately preceding exemption from service of subpoenas, or does it apply equally to all the exemptions which are listed? The court held that the limiting phrase "while actually on duty" qualifies the

two preceding exemptions but does not qualify the exemption from military or jury duty. In other words, an officer under this act has absolute exemption from military and jury duty, and a limited exemption from arrest on civil process or to service of subpœnas. In laying down this decision the court said, "Punctuation often determines the meaning of a sentence as much as any other characteristic of it."

The powers of the United States Government are said to have depended upon certain punctuation marks in the Constitution. Article I, Section 8, reads: "The Congress shall have Power (1) To lay and collect Taxes, Duties, Imposts and Excises, to pay the Debts and provide for the common Defense and general Welfare of the United States; but all Duties, Imposts and Excises shall be uniform throughout the United States." According to one interpretation of this section, Congress has three coordinate powers: "to collect taxes; to pay the debts; and to provide for the general welfare." According to another interpretation of this section, Congress has power "to collect taxes to pay debts and to provide for the general welfare." According to the latter view, which has triumphed both judicially and politically, "the general welfare clause is a mere qualification of the power to lay taxes," and the proper reading of Article I, Section 8, is: "Congress has power to lay and collect taxes in order to pay the debts and in order to provide for the common defense and the general welfare."

172. The Importance of Punctuation in Everyday Writing

The cases which have been cited in the preceding section are representative of numerous instances in which punctuation marks have played a part in litigation and in which judicial notice has been given to these marks. In some cases the punctuation marks have played a central rôle and have been relied upon almost exclusively to bring out the intended meaning. In other cases the punctuation marks of the original document have been disregarded by the

court. In a few cases the court has overruled the punctuation of the original and has repunctuated in such a way as to make the document bring out the probable meaning of the writer. On the whole, the practice of the courts has been uniform in giving due consideration to punctuation as an aid in bringing out the meaning of sentences. Adhering always to the judicial policy of seeking to give effect to the writer's intention and to the rule of "taking the instrument by its four corners," the courts have, by their direct statements on the subject of punctuation and by their interpretation and revision of the punctuation marks in numerous documents, shown a high regard for correct punctuation.

What is the significance of these facts? If a writer wishes to convey his meaning exactly and unmistakably he needs to know and to apply the rules of punctuation. If his meaning is obscure and ambiguous on account of poor punctuation, he is not only evading the writer's natural obligation of being clear, but he is very possibly defeating his own purposes. Perhaps his reader, whether customer, executor, or judge, will read his sentences as he intended them to be read. And perhaps his reader will get a very different or an opposite meaning. Correct punctuation is thus a most practical matter.

How is it, then, that the improvement in punctuation has been so much slower and so much less marked than the improvement in other phases of everyday writing? The explanation lies probably in the fact that to many minds punctuation seems the most arbitrary of all matters of composition. Many people seem to regard punctuation much as did the student who reported to his instructor, "I have the paper all written but I haven't punctuated it yet." To a trained writer this point of view would seem ludicrous, for to him the punctuation marks are almost as important vehicles for conveying meaning as are the words themselves. Punctuation is for him not a separate process, but an essential part of the writing process. This difference of view follows from the fact that the trained writer grasps the principles underlying punctuation, where-

as the untrained person, failing to comprehend these principles, regards punctuation as a wholly arbitrary matter.

173. Learning to Punctuate Correctly

The examples which have been cited, and numerous others of a similar nature, all prove that it is decidedly worth while for anyone who expects to do any writing of any kind to comprehend the true significance of punctuation and to master the various uses of the different punctuation marks. Even he who does no writing whatever has need for this study, for a correct interpretation of what others have written is dependent in large measure upon an understanding of punctuation. These little marks enable the writer to express with accuracy his particular meaning and also enable the reader to understand correctly the exact meaning which the writer intended to convey. It is very essential that both writer and reader should understand the uses of these marks and that they should understand them in the same way. The mastery of these marks is by no means an impossible task. Nor need it be an onerous one if it is approached in the right manner and in the right spirit.

Throughout your study of punctuation remember that it is a means to an end. Punctuation marks exist for a single and very definite purpose, namely, that of aiding the writer in making his meaning clear to the reader. Just as the speaker uses pauses, gestures, and inflexional changes, so the writer uses these signs on the paper to aid him in conveying his precise meaning. This function of punctuation is suggested by the following rule from an interesting old reading book: "When you come to a comma, count one; to a semicolon, count two; to a colon, count three; to a period, count four." Besides the marks mentioned in this old rule there are eight others with which everyone should be familiar. They are the question mark, the exclamation point, the dash, dots in series, parenthesis marks, brackets, quotation marks, and the apostrophe. A good rule to follow in punctuation is this: **USE A PUNCTUATION MARK**

ONLY WHEN YOU HAVE A GOOD REASON FOR DOING SO.

174. Uses of the Period

The period is used to end a declarative or an imperative sentence. Such a sentence may be elliptical and may sometimes consist of a single word, as for example, "Come."

The period is also used as an essential part of every abbreviation; for example, *Mr., Chas., O.K., etc.*

175. Uses of the Question Mark

The question mark is used to end all direct interrogations, such as "Will you go?" Such a sentence may be elliptical and may sometimes consist of a single word, such as "What?"

Indirect questions such as "He asked whether or not I was going" are followed not by the question mark but by the period.

When a question mark occurs within a sentence, it should not be accompanied by any other mark and it should not be followed by a capital letter. This is the correct way to use a question mark within a sentence: "'Has it gone?' he whispered."

176. Uses of the Exclamation Point

The exclamation point is used to end a sentence which reveals genuinely strong feeling, such as "Look out!" An exclamatory sentence may be elliptical and may consist of a single word, such as "Fire!"

An exclamatory sentence may be a statement of fact, such as "He has taken the key!"

An exclamatory sentence may be a question, such as "Has he taken the key?"

The proper use of the exclamation point can be determined only by knowing the degree of emotion that is involved in a particular expression. The same combination of words may constitute on one occasion a mere statement of fact, on another occasion a question, and on a third occasion an exclamation. Consider, for example, the effect of punctu-

ation upon meaning in these sentences: "He replied at once." "He replied at once?" "He replied at once!"

177. Uses of the Semicolon

The semicolon is the strongest of the internal marks of punctuation. On account of the modern tendency toward shorter sentences semicolons are now much less common than they used to be. Where the older writers used the semicolon we often use the period. But the semicolon has to-day several important uses with which everyone should be familiar.

The semicolon is used to separate the clauses of compound sentences when these clauses are not joined by conjunctions. For example, "I did not order for spring delivery; I ordered for immediate shipment."

The semicolon is used to separate coordinate clauses that are joined by a conjunctive adverb such as *accordingly*, *also*, *besides*, *consequently*, *hence*, *however*, *moreover*, *nevertheless*, *otherwise*, *so*, *still*, *then*, *therefore*, and *thus*. For example, "He saw that there had been a mistake; therefore he returned the goods."

The semicolon is used to separate coordinate clauses any of which contain other punctuation marks, whether these clauses are joined by conjunctions or not. For example, "He returned the hammers, the saws, and the planes; but, strange to relate, he kept the other tools."

The semicolon may also be used to separate independent clauses of unusual length, even though those clauses are joined by simple conjunctions and even though they do not contain other punctuation marks. For example, "During the past month he has written us at least six times about that mistake which occurred in filling his last order; and every time we have replied as congenially as we could without admitting that we were wrong."

178. Uses of the Comma

The comma is the most frequently used mark of internal punctuation. On account of the great variety of its uses the comma is for many people the most troublesome punctuation mark. The comma is used sometimes between clauses,

sometimes between phrases, and sometimes between single words. At other times it is used to separate a member of one of these classes from a member of another class. The following is a summary of the principal uses of the comma:

The comma is used to separate coordinate clauses that are joined by one of the simple coordinating conjunctions, such as *and*, *but*, *for*, *neither*, *nor*, or *or*. For example, "He tore the letter open, for he was very eager to know the outcome of the case." "He talks a great deal, but no one seems to pay much attention to him."

The comma is used to separate a dependent clause from its principal clause when the dependent clause precedes. For example, "When the mail comes in, he has no time to loaf." "If you want more information on this point, we shall be glad to supply it."

The comma is used to set off nonrestrictive phrases and clauses, that is, those phrases and clauses which could be omitted without changing the meaning of the principal clause. For example, "His eyesight, poor as it is, enables him to detect the smallest error." "His father, who learned in the school of experience, wants him to go to college."

The comma is used to separate coordinate members of a series of words or phrases, including the last two. For example, "Business letters should have clearness, completeness, and courtesy." "They supply an adequate quantity, a good quality, and an excellent service."

The comma is used to set off an introductory adverbial phrase. For example, "In order to master your language, you must study it consistently." "Upon receiving a letter, he answers it at once."

The comma is used to set off slightly parenthetical or interrupting words, phrases, or clauses. For example, "Letter writing, as you know, is an important part of modern business." "They are, so I am told, going out of business."

The comma is used to set off transitional words and phrases. For example, "There is, moreover, much evidence to the contrary." "In the first place, the whole story is based on hearsay."

The comma is used to set off transposed elements, that is, elements out of their natural position. For example, "At his own desk, there he feels at home." "Outside of his office during working hours, I don't think he ever was seen."

The comma is used to set off absolute phrases. For example, "Money being so scarce, business is naturally dull." "Next year will be better, improvement continuing steadily."

The comma is used to set off appositives. For example, "I had a visit with Mr. Jones, my first employer." "Upon his return he stopped at New York, the world's largest city."

The comma is used to set off vocatives in direct address. For example, "At last, John, we have received a reply." "And how are you, my friend?"

The comma is used to set off short direct quotations. For example, "'Thank you,' he stammered." "He called loudly, 'Where are you?'"

The comma is used to set off mild interjections. For example, "Oh, how tired I am." "Come, come, don't be in such a hurry."

The comma is used to set off a geographical name which explains an immediately preceding name. For example, "Omaha, Nebraska." "Hodson, Brunswick County, Kansas."

The comma is used to set off a date which explains an immediately preceding date. For example, "The armistice was signed on November 11, 1918." "The store opened on Monday, May 15, 1921."

The comma is used after the salutation in familiar letters between friends. For example, "My dear John,". "Dear Old Timer,".

The comma is used after the complimentary close in all letters, both business and personal. For example, "Very truly yours,". "Yours respectfully,".

179. Uses of the Colon

The colon is a mark of introduction. It is sometimes interchangeable with the comma, but never with the semi-

colon. The use of the colon instead of the comma implies either a considerable degree of complexity in the following construction or a considerable degree of formality in the writer's purpose. This complexity or formality is often indicated also by the use of introductory words such as "the following" or "as follows" just preceding the colon.

The colon is used to introduce formally a list or series of elements, particularly when the members are long or complex or when they are begun on separate lines. For example:

Our reasons for not shipping these goods are as follows:

We were out of No. A shells at the time this order was received.

We tried every wholesale house in town and failed to find a single box of No. A shells.

We placed an order with the manufacturer, and begged him to rush it.

We received to-day a letter explaining that No. A shells of this brand are no longer manufactured.

The colon is used to introduce formally a long quotation. For example:

In his work entitled *The Theory of the Leisure Class*, Thorstein Veblen makes this statement:

Cap and gown have been adopted as learned insignia by many colleges of this section within the last few years; and it is safe to say that this could scarcely have occurred at a much earlier date, or until there had grown up a leisure-class sentiment of sufficient volume in the community to support a strong movement of reversion towards an archaic view as to the legitimate end of education. . . . The precise date at which the reversion to cap and gown took place, as well as the fact that it affected so large a number of schools at about the same time, seems to have been due in some measure to a wave of atavistic sense of conformity and reputability that passed over the community at that period.

The colon is used to introduce a long question. For example:

He raised a very important question: What nation is going to have enough nerve to lead the way to the armament scrap heap?

The colon is used to introduce a specific example or illustration of a foregoing statement. For example:

Industrial conditions are certainly improving: five factories in this city have reopened during the past month.

The colon is used to introduce a restatement of an idea which has already been expressed in the same sentence. When used in this manner, the colon is equivalent to the sign = which is used in arithmetic. The colon may be followed by an abbreviation such as *viz.* or *i.e.*, or by introductory words such as *namely* or *that is*. Consider this example:

It has always been our policy to keep this information strictly confidential among members of our organization: in short, we cannot answer your question without further identification on your part.

The colon is used after the salutation in all business letters and in all social correspondence of a formal nature. For example:

Dear Sir:

Gentlemen:

My dear Mr. Edwards:

The colon is used between figures representing the hour and the minute. For example, 1:30, 2:45.

The colon is used between the name of a magazine and the date of publication in citing magazine references. For example:

System: December, 1921.

American: January, 1922.

The colon is used between the name of the city and the name of the publisher in citing book references. For example:

New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Garden City: Doubleday, Page & Co.

The colon is used between the name of an author and the title of his book in citing references. For example:

Woolley: *Handbook of Composition*.

Sherman: *Elements of Literature*.

180. Uses of the Dash

The dash is the most abused mark of punctuation. Extremely careless people sometimes use it as a substitute for any or all of the other marks. It is true that the dash may sometimes be correctly used as a substitute for the colon or the parenthesis mark. But it should be used just as sparingly and with the same care as any other punctuation mark. In the past, the dash was often added to the colon after the salutation in business letters. But this addition is wholly superfluous and the best present usage favors the colon alone for this purpose.

The dash is used to indicate an abrupt or violent change of thought within a sentence. For example:

In your last letter—what was the matter with you when you wrote that letter, anyway?

The dash is used to indicate the addition of an afterthought. For example:

I have an appointment with him at—why it's already ten o'clock!

Dashes may be used to set off parenthetical elements. In this use, dashes are more formal than commas and less formal than parenthesis marks. Those marks should be used which secure the desired degree of formality. What is the desirable degree of formality can be determined only from a knowledge of the writer's purpose in this particular sentence and in the composition as a whole. Three degrees of formality are represented in the following examples.

Least formal:

He replied, whether you believe it or not, in less than a week.

More formal:

He replied—whether you believe it or not—in less than a week.

Most formal:

He replied (whether you believe it or not) in less than a week.

The dash may be used before a summarizing word or statement at the end of a sentence. When it occurs in this position, the dash is usually preceded by a comma. For example:

That the officers had been negligent, that the books had been "doctored," that the firm had been on the verge of bankruptcy for a long time,—all of these facts were brought out by the investigation.

The dash may be used as a substitute for a comma before an appositive. For example:

Our old manager has come back—Mr. Storm of pre-war days.

The dash is used between figures representing pages, as for example, pp. 44—54. Such references usually include both the first and last pages which are cited.

The dash is used between the names of months, as for example, January—March, and between the figures representing years, as for example, 1915—20. Such references usually include the period of time from the beginning of the first unit to the beginning of the last one.

181. Uses of Parenthesis Marks

Parenthesis marks are used to set off within a sentence matter which is not structurally necessary but which is thrown in for the purpose of additional explanation or illustration. Such parenthetical matter should always follow and should never precede what it aims to explain or to illustrate. For example:

The man replied (as his contract bound him to do) within a month.

Parenthesis marks are sometimes used in citing references. For example "(See also Section 180)."

Parenthesis marks are used to inclose figures which repeat numbers already spelled out. For example, "Ten (10) dollars," or "Ten dollars (\$10)."

Parenthesis marks are used to inclose a question mark placed after a doubtful date or sum. For example, "It

was in 1919 (?) that he first took charge." This use should, as a general rule, be avoided in serious writing.

182. Uses of Brackets

Brackets have only one legitimate use, namely, to inclose matter that is added by someone other than the original writer. These marks are used chiefly by editors in adding comments or corrections to a manuscript. They should be used to inclose any words which are supplied within a quotation. For example:

He says, "At present [December] we are overstocked."

183. Uses of Quotation Marks

Regular quotation marks consist of double inverted commas at the beginning and double apostrophes at the end of a word or a group of words. Such marks should be used only to inclose direct quotations, as for example, "Four score and seven years ago." They should never be used to inclose indirect quotations such as "He said that he would be here by noon."

In reproducing dialog quotation marks are used to inclose each separate continuous speech, whether it consists of a single word or of several sentences. For example:

"Whither?"

"I am on my way to the station. I have just had word that my brother is coming. I have not seen him for ten years."

Quotation marks are used to inclose each separate part of a speech which is interrupted by words from the author. For example:

"I guess," said he after a pause, "that I won't sign that until I have had time to think it over."

In a quotation consisting of two or more paragraphs, quotation marks are used at the beginning of each paragraph and at the end of the whole quotation. They are not used at the end of each paragraph in such a passage.

Single quotation marks are used to inclose a quotation within a quotation. If there is further need of quotation

marks within these, double marks are used again, and so on, alternately. For example:

"My friend Jones," he said, "is always boasting, 'I have read that passage beginning "To be or not to be" at least a thousand times.'"

In quoting printed matter, one should inclose within quotation marks an exact reproduction of the original, including not only the words but the punctuation marks as well. If a period, question mark, or exclamation point ends the quoted passage, it should be inclosed within the quotation marks. For example:

"How in the world," asked John, "can we ever get this matter straightened out?"

But if the end punctuation is supplied by the one who is quoting, it should be placed outside of the quotation marks. For example:

Did John use his old phrase, "Thanking you in advance"?

Quotation marks are sometimes used to inclose titles of published works. The best present usage is to write titles of whole works in italics and to inclose within quotation marks titles of chapters, sections, or other subdivisions of whole works. Similarly, titles of periodicals should be written in italics (underscore once in manuscript) and titles of individual magazine or newspaper articles should be inclosed within quotation marks. A writer should never use either italics or quotation marks for his own title, unless that title is actually a quotation. Note these examples:

Sherman's *What Is Shakespeare?*, Chapter V, "The Dramatic Art of *Macbeth*."

"Why So Many Pulpits Are Empty," *The Literary Digest*, October 22, 1921.

Quotation marks are used around letters of the alphabet, words, or figures referred to as such. For example:

His "a's" are very broad.

"Get by" is losing its standing, even among lovers of slang.

He makes his "3's" and his "8's" very much alike.

Quotation marks are sometimes used apologetically around words which are out of their usual or proper context. This device may be used with technical terms in a popular discussion, with slang words introduced into formal composition, and with nicknames. But these uses of quotation marks are dangerous and should be avoided as much as possible. Examples are:

When they are thus treated, the holes are said to be "countersunk."

He is a fine "bird" to be leading a company.

Have you heard of "Pussyfoot" lately?

184. Uses of Ellipses

Ellipses consist of dots in series. Such dots may be used to indicate the omission of words from a quotation. The dots should occur at the exact point at which the omission has been made. For example:

It is vain, sir, to extenuate the matter. The war is actually begun. I know not what course others may take; but as for me, give me liberty or give me death.

In quoting verse, a full line of dots is used to indicate the omission of one or more lines from the original. For example:

Hence, loathed Melancholy,
Of Cerberus and blackest Midnight born
.....
In dark Cimmerian desert ever dwell.

185. Uses of the Apostrophe

The apostrophe is used chiefly together with "s" to form the possessive case of singular nouns. For example, "Man's."

The apostrophe is also used together with "s" to form the possessive case of plural nouns which do not end in "s". For example, "Men's."

The apostrophe is in a few instances used after a final "s" to form the possessive case. For example, "Moses' laws." "Dickens' novels."

The apostrophe is used with the possessive adjectives "One's," "other's," "either's," but not with the possessive pronouns "yours," "theirs," "ours," "his," "hers," "its."

The apostrophe is used to indicate the omission of letters in a contraction. The apostrophe should be placed exactly where the omission has occurred. For example, "can't," "don't," "won't," "isn't," "couldn't," "doesn't," and "it's." (Note the difference between "its" and "it's.")

The apostrophe together with "s" is used to form the plurals of letters, words, and figures regarded as such. For example:

"X's" are never doubled.

His "and's" are too plentiful.

It is all "6's and 7's" with him.

CHAPTER XIII

HOW TO PREPARE A MANUSCRIPT

186. The Importance of Good Form in Written Messages

We are all affected, whether we admit it or not, by the dress in which a written message comes to us, just as we are all affected in some degree by the dress in which a person presents himself. The written communication, whether it be a social note, a commercial letter, a business report, or the manuscript of an article, becomes the official representative of the writer. As such it deserves to be put into the best possible form. If it is to create an initial impression favorable to the author, his written representative must be thoroughly correct and in accord with the best present usages. Many people refuse to give any consideration whatever to messages which are not in good form.

Those who are responsible for the written messages of large business firms lay great stress upon the importance of correct form. And this is by no means confined to those firms which handle the delicacies of life or which deal chiefly with women. The first page in a booklet prepared by Crane Company for its correspondents stresses in these words the importance of the letter as the representative of the house:

Every letter written and sent out by Crane Co. must be worthy the character, traditions and standing of the house.

Many people know Crane Co. through correspondence only, and the conveyance of a good impression through a letter is of great value, while a poorly constructed one will have the tendency to give a customer the idea that Crane Co.'s goods are also poorly constructed.

There are a few minor differences in usage between the form of the business letter or report and the form of a

manuscript prepared for publication, but most of the rules which are laid down in this chapter apply equally to both.

187. Paper and Ink

Use sheets of regular letter size, eight and one-half by eleven inches, for letters, reports, and articles. The paper should be plain white, unruled, good enough in quality to take ink well and heavy enough to stand some rough handling. The ink should be plain black or blue. Paper, ink, and type should be uniform in all respects throughout any particular piece of writing. Use only one side of each sheet. Number all pages after the first in the upper right-hand corner. Never roll or fold the sheets in a manuscript which is to be submitted to a publisher.

188. Legibility

Remember that a written communication is entirely worthless unless it is legible. If you are using a pen, take special pains to make your handwriting so plain that it can be read easily by others. Make each individual letter distinct from the others. Avoid long loops and flourishes which run into other letters. Do not forget your dots and cross-strokes; these are essential parts of the letters in which they occur. Leave enough space between words so that one word cannot possibly be confused with another. Set your punctuation marks out plainly, and leave some space around them. If you find it necessary to make erasures and revisions, make them as neatly as possible. When several changes must be made on the same page, it is usually best to recopy that page as a whole.

189. Proper Spacing

The general appearance of a written message, as well as the ease with which it can be read, is dependent largely upon the spacing within and around it. In manuscript which is to be sent to a publisher, all lines should be double spaced. After a little practice one can double space with accuracy and neatness even with the pen. Double-spaced

pages are more easily read than single-spaced and they have the further advantage of allowing more chance for revision.

In business letters the spacing is determined largely by the circumstances. If a very short letter is to be placed on a full sheet, it will almost certainly be double spaced throughout. But it is usually better to single space than to carry over two or three lines to a second page. In order to attain uniformity in their correspondence, some firms prescribe double spacing and others prescribe single spacing for all of their letters. The best letter writers at present seem to favor the practice of single spacing within the parts of the letter and double spacing between the parts. Single spacing is commonly used in lists, quotations, and footnotes.

The practice of double spacing between paragraphs in business letters is now practically universal. Some writers regard this double space as a substitute for paragraph indentation, but many writers use both of these means of indicating paragraphs. Typewriter indentations are usually either five spaces or ten spaces. In pen-written manuscript paragraph indentations should be one inch. Indentations should be uniform throughout any piece of writing.

190. Good Margins

Margins play an important part in making or marring the appearance of a letter or a manuscript. The accessibility of the contents is affected almost as much as is their appearance by the presence or absence of good margins. In a manuscript intended for publication, each page should have a liberal margin all around. This margin should be about one inch in width, and should be as nearly uniform as possible. Special care should be taken to make the right-hand margin even.

Margins in business letters are determined largely by the relation between the length of the letter and the size of the stationery. A letter should be well centered on the page. The margin around it should be as nearly uniform as possible. The shorter the letter, the wider the margin; this is

the general principle. On regular business stationery the top part of the sheet is cared for by the letter-head. If you are using blank paper of regular letter size, begin your heading about one and one-half inches from the top of the sheet. When the whole sheet is to be used, the left and right margins should be an inch or ten typewriter spaces in width. Do not crowd the material at the bottom of the page. Try to leave a white space at the bottom proportionate to the space at the sides and at the top. But prefer rather to sacrifice this proportion than to carry over a few words to a second page.

Additional white space should be left around quotations, examples, and lists of items which are paragraphed separately. This rule applies to quotations of verse even though only a single line is reproduced. It applies also to footnotes.

191. The Use of Capital Letters

There are a number of other matters of usage in the preparation of manuscript with which everyone should be familiar. Problems arise on every page of written communications concerning the correct use of capitals, italics, abbreviations, contractions, numbers, and hyphens.

A capital letter is used at the beginning of every new sentence.

A capital letter is used at the beginning of a quotation which is a complete statement, capable of standing alone.

A capital letter is used to begin a statement, a series of examples, or a list of items formally introduced by a colon and "as follows" or "the following."

A capital letter is used at the beginning of each item in a tabular list.

A capital letter is used at the beginning of each line of poetry.

All proper nouns and words used as proper nouns should be capitalized. *President Harding, Keystone State, Democratic Party.*

All abbreviations of proper nouns should be capitalized. *Nebr., Oak St., Pa., Ave.*

All titles of persons used together with or in place of

proper names should be capitalized. *General Pershing, Professor Noble, Dear Brother, the President.*

Adjectives and nouns of language and race should be capitalized. *France, French, Sweden, Swedish, Mexico, Mexican.*

All common nouns such as *lake, valley, avenue, creek, harbor, ocean, company, park, railroad, street, university, club, or society* which are incorporated into proper names should be capitalized. *Thomas Y. Crowell and Company, The Northwestern Railroad, Fourth Street.*

Trade names are usually capitalized. *Waterman's Ideal Ink, Swift's Premium Ham.*

The first word and all important words in literary titles should be capitalized. In practice this usually means all words except articles, prepositions, and conjunctions. *The Analytics of Literature, The Theory of the Leisure Class.*

The names of great historical events and periods are capitalized. *The Norman Conquest, The Middle Ages, Ancient Rome.*

The names of days and of months are capitalized. *Monday, Friday, March, December.* But the names of seasons are not capitalized. *spring, summer, autumn, winter.*

Names of directions are capitalized only when they are used as proper names referring to sections of the country. *The Old South, Out West, Back East, The Far North.*

The pronoun *I* and the interjection *O* are always capitalized.

The first word in the salutation of a letter is capitalized. *My dear Sir, Dear Mr. Brown.*

The first word in the complimentary close of a letter is capitalized. *Very truly yours, Yours truly.*

Capitalization is used to show personification of abstract nouns. *Speed, Death, Repentance.*

All references to Deity should be capitalized. *Almighty, Lord, Jehovah, Providence, Heaven.*

192. The Use of Italics

Italic type, a style in which the letters slope as *here*, is used for certain purposes in printing English. But the

usage of printers varies considerably, so that it is somewhat difficult to establish with certainty just what those purposes should be. One who intends to write for publication should find out from a style book or from other sources the usage of the particular publishers in whom he is interested.

Italics are used, in general, to make certain words more conspicuous than others. This does not mean that we should italicize every word which we consider important. The use of italics for emphasis is the least acceptable of all uses, because it is the most easily abused. The most careful writers never use italics as a device for securing emphasis.

To indicate italics in a manuscript, draw one straight line below exactly those letters or words which should be set in italic type. In business correspondence the practice is spreading of substituting capital letters for this manuscript method of indicating italics. Whatever device is used, it is important that this device should be understood thoroughly and similarly by the writer and by the reader and that it should be used consistently.

Italics are used to indicate the titles of complete literary and artistic works when these are referred to in the midst of a discussion. When such titles are printed in bibliographies or lists of references, the italics are often omitted. The best practice is to use italics for the titles of whole works and quotation marks for the titles of subdivisions.

In the titles of books every word is italicized. *The Story of English Speech*.

In the titles of magazines beginning articles are omitted from the italics. Usually these articles are not capitalized. The *Literary Digest*, the *Dial*, the *New Republic*.

In the titles of daily newspapers beginning articles and the names of cities are omitted from the italics. The name of the city is always capitalized. The *Chicago Tribune*, the *New York Herald*, the *Denver Post*, the *Omaha World-Herald*.

The names of ships, airships, and trains are written in italics. *Lusitania*, *U. S. S. Brooklyn*, *U. S. Monitor Nantucket*, *Dixie Flyer*.

Words and phrases which are still regarded as foreign are italicized. See the list in Section 133.

Abbreviations of some foreign words and phrases are italicized. *ibid.*, *op. cit.*, *loc. cit.*, *et al.*, *ad loc.*, *i. e.*, *e. g.*, *et seq.*, *vs.*, *id.*, *cf.*

Many scientific names of foreign origin are properly italicized. *Cicada septendecim*, *gamma rays*, *alpha particle*, *conjugate foci*.

The names of the planets are properly italicized. *Nep-
tune*, *Jupiter*, *Mars*.

The word *Resolved* in formal resolutions is usually printed in italics. So also are the words *Ordered* and *Be it enacted* in official records.

Official titles may be italicized in printed signatures. John Brown, *Cashier*.

Italics may be used for calling attention to letters, words, or figures which are referred to as such. "His pronunciation of *r* is peculiar." "Omit about half of your '*and*'s." "He makes his 8 just like a 3."

193. The Use of Abbreviations

All books on composition discourage the use of abbreviations. "Oh, for a little leisure in an age of short cuts!" sighs one writer in a recent article entitled "The Plague of Abbreviation." In adopting this position, composition books have the authority of the best literary usage. Good writers as a rule do not use any abbreviations in connected literary discourse. On the other hand, abbreviations are commonly used by everyone in reference citations, in footnotes, and in tabulated matter.

What are we to do about abbreviations in business letters and in other forms of everyday writing? How far does the literary usage apply here? In the first place, it must be noted that there are some abbreviations which have come to be so universally used in business writing that the words which they represent are almost never spelled out in full. Most common among these are certain titles, such as *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Messrs.*, *Esq.*, *Dr.*, and certain academic degrees, such as *D.D.*, *LL.D.*, *M.A.*, *M.D.*, and *Ph.D.* These abbreviations

viations are correct when they accompany proper names. But they are incorrect if used alone. It is correct to write "Dr. Jones called." But it is incorrect to write "The Dr. called." In other words, an abbreviated title may be used as part of a proper name but not as a substitute for it.

Other abbreviated titles are less acceptable than those cited above, even when they accompany proper names. It is not in the best taste to abbreviate the titles *Captain*, *Colonel*, *General*, *Honorable*, *Manager*, *President*, *Professor*, *Reverend*, and *Superintendent*. These titles are sometimes abbreviated in the addresses of business letters. But they should never be abbreviated in the salutation or in the body of the letter. We may, if we wish, address a letter to "Col. John P. Jones," but in the salutation of this letter we should write "My dear Colonel Jones," spelling out the title in full. Concerning the title *Reverend* there is some difference in usage. This title may be used correctly in any one of the following ways: "The Reverend Dr. Brown," "The Reverend Mr. Brown," "The Reverend John Brown." The title *Honorable* should likewise be preceded by the article *the*, as for example, "The Honorable President Harding," "The Honorable Mr. Harding, President," "The Honorable Warren G. Harding, President."

Note carefully that *Miss* is not an abbreviation but a whole word.

Besides the abbreviations used in titles there are a number of others which have come into general use in everyday writing. The most common of these are: *A.D.*, *A.E.F.*, *a.m.*, *anon.*, *Ave.*, *Bros.*, *Co.*, *C.O.D.*, *Do.*, *e.g.*, *enc.*, *et al.*, *etc.*, *et seq.*, *F.O.B.*, *G.A.R.*, *ibid.*, *i.e.*, *inst.*, *m.*, *mdse.*, *mfg.*, *no.*, *per cent.*, *p.m.*, *pro tem.*, *prox.*, *P.S.*, *R.S.V.P.*, *St.*, *ult.*, and *viz.* None of these abbreviations should be used without accompanying words or figures. It is permissible to write "Crane Co." or "11 a.m." but it is incorrect at all times to write "The Co. pays good wages" or "See me to-morrow a.m." The symbol & should be used only when it is part of an incorporated name. In such cases it properly accompanies the abbreviation *Co.* Neither the words *Ultimo*, *Instant*, *Proximo* nor their abbreviations *Ult.*,

Inst., *Prox.* are sanctioned by the best usage in present-day business correspondence.

The purpose of abbreviations is to save time. Naturally, then, those words which occur most often in daily writing are most generally abbreviated. Everyone, including those who have enough time and enough regard for good taste to spell their words out in full, should know the correct abbreviations for the days of the week, the months of the year, and the states of the United States.

The correct abbreviations for the days of the week are as follows:

Sun.	Thur.
Mon.	Fri.
Tue.	Sat.
Wed.	

The correct abbreviations for the months of the year are as follows:

Jan.	July
Feb.	Aug.
Mar.	Sept.
Apr.	Oct.
May	Nov.
June	Dec.

The correct abbreviations for the names of the states and territories as listed by the United States Post Office Department are as follows:

Ala.—Alabama	Me.—Maine
Ariz.—Arizona	Md.—Maryland
Ark.—Arkansas	Mass.—Massachusetts
Cal.—California	Mich.—Michigan
Colo.—Colorado	Minn.—Minnesota
Conn.—Connecticut	Miss.—Mississippi
Del.—Delaware	Mo.—Missouri
D. C.—District of Columbia	Mont.—Montana
Fla.—Florida	Nebr.—Nebraska
Ga.—Georgia	Nev.—Nevada
Ill.—Illinois	N. H.—New Hampshire
Ind.—Indiana	N. J.—New Jersey
Kans.—Kansas	N. Mex.—New Mexico
Ky.—Kentucky	N. Y.—New York
La.—Louisiana	N. C.—North Carolina

N. Dak.—North Dakota
 Okla.—Oklahoma
 Oreg.—Oregon
 Pa.—Pennsylvania
 P. I.—Philippine Islands
 P. R.—Porto Rico
 R. I.—Rhode Island
 S. C.—South Carolina
 S. Dak.—South Dakota

Tenn.—Tennessee
 Tex.—Texas
 Vt.—Vermont
 Va.—Virginia
 Wash.—Washington
 W. Va.—West Virginia
 Wis.—Wisconsin
 Wyo.—Wyoming

Alaska, Guam, Hawaii, Idaho, Iowa, Ohio, Samoa, and Utah should not be abbreviated.

Never abbreviate such words as *dear, Madam, Miss, respectfully, and yours.*

Avoid abbreviations as much as possible, especially in connected discourse. When you do use an abbreviation, make sure that you have the correct form and that you use it in the correct manner.

194. The Use of Contractions

A contraction is a particular form of abbreviation in which the first and last elements of a word are brought together by the omission of other elements between them. An abbreviation consisting only of the first elements of a word cannot be pronounced correctly except by uttering the word for which it stands. Correct English knows no such forms as "the Cap.," "the Doc.," or "the Prof.," Contractions, on the other hand, are essentially short cuts in pronunciation.

From their almost universal usage in speech, contractions have naturally crept into writing. Should we admit contractions into our written messages? The answer depends upon the occasion of the writing and the purpose of the writer. If it is the writer's aim to reproduce conversation, he will certainly need contractions, for almost everybody uses colloquially such shortened forms as "I'd," "I've," "can't," "don't," "won't." When the correspondent aims to substitute his letter for a face-to-face conversation, he may be permitted to indulge in the informalities indicated by contractions. If, on the other hand, he desires his writing to have a high degree of dignity and

formality, he will carefully avoid all contractions and all short cuts of whatever nature. It is best to adopt for general purposes the rule that contractions are to be avoided. Make only such departures from this rule as seem to be justified by special circumstances.

The United States Government *Style Book* contains this paragraph concerning contractions:

When in a Senator's or a Member's language the copy shows such contractions as "don't," "can't," "won't," "didn't," "couldn't," and "wouldn't," spell in full, as "do not," "can not," "will not," "did not," "could not," and "would not." This is not intended to apply to extracts and anecdotes. The contraction "etc." should be made to read "and so forth," except in extracts.

195. The Representation of Numbers

Questions concerning the correct manner of representing numbers arise on every page of daily writing. In literary writing it has become an established practice to spell out isolated numbers unless these require more than three or four words. In connected discourse it is proper to write "forty dollars" or "ten o'clock." If the numbers are only approximate, they should always be spelled out, as for example, "Almost two thousand," "After four o'clock." When numbers are so complicated as to require many words, they are represented by figures even in literary writing. Thus one would never spell out 1,682,946. When many numbers are mentioned close together they are all written in figures, particularly if presented in tabular form. If we wish to mention in connected discourse that "Mr. Storm is now thirty-five years old," we spell out the number. But if we are setting forth the ages of several individuals, we may use figures, as for example, "A is now 40 years old, B is 38, C is 35, D is 32, and E is only 30."

The distinction just noted applies also to sums of money. Isolated references to sums are spelled out, as for example, "fifteen cents," "four hundred dollars." But several sums occurring close together are represented by figures, as for example, "The price of Grade A has dropped from \$1.15 to \$1.05 and of Grade B from 60 cents to 50 cents,"

In designating by figures sums of money of one dollar or over, the sign \$ should be used before the figures, as in the preceding sentence. The double ciphers need not be used after even sums. Write "\$118" or "\$2120."

In dates, addresses, references, and statistical tables cardinal numbers are always properly represented by figures. The proper way to write a date in business letters and for all everyday purposes is "January 15, 1922." But in formal social correspondence dates are often spelled out in full, as for example, "January fifteenth, nineteen hundred and twenty-two." The proper way to write an address for all ordinary purposes is as follows: "1462 South 17th Street." The proper way to cite a reference is as follows: "Rule 2, page 96, Chapter VIII."

Ordinal numbers may be represented either by words or by figures. One may write "Your letter of the tenth" or "Your letter of the 10th." One may write "Fourth Street" or "4th Street." Usage among business correspondents is very much unsettled concerning the inclusion or omission of the ordinal signs *st*, *nd*, *rd*, *th* after street numbers and after dates. The best practice is represented in the foregoing examples. A safe rule would be: Use ordinal signs consistently after street numbers and consistently after dates not including the year. Write "December 15th" or "the 15th," but "December 15, 1921." Note that the ordinal signs are not abbreviations and should not be followed by periods.

Numbers should ordinarily not be represented both by words and by figures. Exceptions to this rule occur in certain legal and commercial instruments in which figures within parentheses are placed after words representing numbers, as for example, "ten dollars (\$10)." When used at all, such a parenthetical repetition should occur immediately after the word or words which it repeats, as for example, "thirty (30) dollars," or "thirty dollars (\$30)."

Figures should not be used at the beginning of a sentence. If the number must be used at that point, spell it out, as for example, "Ten per cent. discount means a lot."

Figures are avoided in literary writing unless many num-

bers are used close together. In daily business writing, particularly in orders and acknowledgments, figures may be employed with greater liberty. One definite method of representing numbers should be adopted and carried consistently throughout a given letter or article.

196. The Use of the Hyphen in Syllabication

The hyphen is used for the purpose of dividing words at the ends of lines and for the purpose of joining the parts of certain compound words. Avoid word division at the ends of lines whenever possible. When you must divide a word, make the division in accordance with established rules and usages. Note first of all that words of one syllable should never be divided. In words of two or more syllables make necessary divisions between syllables and not elsewhere. Always place the hyphen at the end of a line, never at the beginning.

The rules for syllabication are not absolute. One must learn correct forms from a study of the practice followed by the makers of standard dictionaries and the writers of standard prose. Webster's *New International Dictionary*, page *lix*, presents a detailed discussion of this subject. The rules presented here are based upon that discussion and upon the practice of the best modern writers.

A necessary word division should, whenever possible, be made in such a way that the second part begins with a consonant, as for example, *ordi-nance*, *fa-tal*, *an-swer*, *depart-ment*, *achieve-ment*.

In accordance with this rule, words containing double consonants are divided between the consonants, as for example, *permit-ted*, *ad-dress*, *car-riage*, *com-mo-dity*.

For purposes of word division, prefixes and suffixes are regarded as syllables. Division is usually made between a prefix and the letter following it, and between a suffix and the letter preceding it. Consider these examples of prefix separation: *ex-empt*, *dis-appoint*, *re-sist*, *in-close*, *ab-sorp-tion*. The following examples illustrate correct forms of suffix separation: *arrange-ment*, *acquaint-ance*, *complain-ant*, *confu-sion*, *destruc-tion*, *manufac-ture*.

A syllable of one or two letters, unless it is a prefix or suffix, should never be separated from the rest of the word. On account of the difficulties which they create for the reader, it is best to avoid such divisions even when they might be permissible. Do not divide such words as *against*, *along*, *abroad*, *among*, *idle*, *heavy*, *stringy*.

Never separate from a word an unpronounceable part of it. Words which end in *le* must be written with care. Never separate *le* from the consonant which precedes. For example, you may write *possi-ble*, *enti-tle*, *sta-ple*. Better yet, avoid dividing such words. Never separate *ed* from the rest of a word unless *ed* is to be pronounced as a separate syllable. For example, you may separate *ed* in *delight-ed*, but not in *climbed*.

Do not divide digraphs, such as *gh*, *ph*, *sh*, *th*, *gn*, *ng*, *oa*. When such letters are pronounced singly they are not digraphs and may be separated, as in *dis-habille*, *distin-guish*, *Lap-ham*, *Leg-horn*, *nightin-gale*, *o-asis*, *post-humous*, *signature*, *sig-nificant*.

Do not divide proper nouns if you can possibly avoid it. The division of personal names is especially objectionable.

Hyphenated compounds should never be divided at any other place than at the hyphen. In other words, do not have two hyphens in the same word.

Avoid any awkward, ludicrous, or misleading division of a word, such as *on-ly*, *eight-een*, *dog-matic*, *cow-orker*.

Remember your reader and prepare your manuscript with a view to his convenience as well as your own.

197. The Use of the Hyphen in Compound Words

The hyphen is also used to join the parts of certain compound words. It is one of the most difficult problems in the mechanics of writing to determine which compounds should be hyphenated and which should be written solid. Usage varies considerably on this point, and even the standard dictionaries are not in thorough agreement. The best that one can do is to adopt the practice of some reliable dictionary and to follow this authority consistently. One

needs for this purpose a complete unabridged edition, for small pocket dictionaries do not list very many compounds. The edition adopted should be of recent date, for usage in the writing of compounds is continually changing.

In spite of the variations in usage, there are a few basic principles involved in the compounding of words with which every writer should be familiar. The fundamental principle is that no change should be made in the form of a word unless the change in form is accompanied by a change in meaning. We may write *a green house*, *a green-house city*, or *a greenhouse*, because three different meanings are expressed by these three forms. Similarly, we write *hard wood*, *hard-wood*, and *hardwood*. A poorhouse is not always a poor house; nor is a high road always a highroad. Compound words greatly increase the range and accuracy of our vocabulary.

Two nouns are seldom hyphenated. If relationship between such nouns is very close, they are usually written solid, as *battleship*, *bookkeeper*, *fatherland*. When the relationship is less close such nouns are written separately, as *air pump*, *life insurance*, *parcel post*.

Two adjectives, on the other hand, are often hyphenated when they modify the same noun and particularly when they precede the noun. The following are typical compound adjectives: *light-blue cloth*, *sea-island cotton*, *cast-iron pipe*, *self-governing body*, *first-class ticket*, *right-hand side*, *left-handed man*. Hyphenation does not usually occur when the adjectives follow the noun. Thus we write: "The cloth is light blue." "The pipe is cast iron."

Modifiers consisting of a noun plus an adjective are sometimes hyphenated, as in *fire-red*, *slave-born*, *coal-black*, *book-learned*.

Modifiers consisting of an adjective plus a noun are often hyphenated, as in *single-barreled*, *deep-dyed*, *low-priced*, *level-headed*. Adjectives and nouns often grow together. Our language contains many adjective and noun compounds such as *barefoot*, *greenback*, *hardware*, *hotbed*, *blackboard*, *blueprint*.

Two or more nouns used adjectivally are often hyphen-

ated. Thus although we write *parcel post*, we write *parcel-post rates*. We write *post office*, but *post-office regulations*.

Modifiers consisting of an adverb, other than one ending in *ly*, plus a participle are often hyphenated, as in *the last-named person, the so-called reform, a well-known author*. Adverbs ending in *ly* are not usually joined to the words they modify. Thus we write: *a heavily burdened man, a gaily colored scene, a widely read book*.

Modifiers consisting of a numeral plus a noun are often hyphenated, as in *twelve-inch rule, 60-horse power motor, 1½-inch pipe, two-mile walk*.

Numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine, inclusive, are written as hyphenated compounds when they are spelled out. *Twenty-six, eighty-two, forty-four*.

Words representing the numerator and denominator of a fraction should usually be hyphenated, as *one-half, two-thirds, three-fourths*. But if either numerator or denominator requires a hyphen within itself, the hyphen between them is omitted. For example: *six one-hundredths, twenty-four one-hundred-and-twentieths, one twenty-fifth*.

The hyphen is used similarly in words representing fractional parts. We write *one-half mile*, but *one half-mile walk*; *one-quarter of a page*, but *one quarter-page advertisement*.

The hyphen is used in such adjectival combinations as *The January-March quarter, The Omaha-Lincoln road, and The Burgess-Nash Stores*.

Prefixes and suffixes naturally attach themselves to words and come to be written solidly with them, as in *biennial, international, proportion*. But there are a few exceptions to this rule, notably the prefix *ex* when used to denote a former condition or office, as in *ex-President, ex-Senator, ex-soldier*.

The hyphen is sometimes used after a prefix in order to give the prefix greater stress or emphasis, as in *co-worker, non-existent, pre-war*.

The hyphen is sometimes used after a prefix in order to prevent an awkward combination of letters, particularly

of vowels, as in *co-operation*, *anti-imperial*, *semi-incandescent*, *extra-ocular*.

The hyphen is used to separate a prefix from a word which begins with a capital letter, as in *anti-American*, *semi-European*.

In a few instances, groups consisting of more than two words may be written as hyphenated compounds. For example: *collect-on-delivery service*, *daddy-long-legs*, *drop-the-handkerchief*, *dry-as-dust*, *free-for-all*, *give-and-take*, *hand-me-down*, *heel-and-toe*, *hob-and-nob*, *in-and-out*, *jack-in-the-box*, *matter-of-fact*, *mother-in-law*, *son-in-law*, *thick-and-thin*, *to-and-fro*.

It is permissible to use the hyphen in a word or a group of words which might otherwise be misunderstood. For example, we write *re-creation* to distinguish it from *recreation* and *re-cover* to distinguish it from *recover*. We may, similarly, distinguish between a *good shoemaker* and a *good-shoe maker* or between a *base ball-player* and a *baseball player*.

By making many of our words do double or triple duty we enlarge greatly the possibilities of our vocabulary. The words *dog* and *tooth* had both rendered good service before they were combined to make *dog-tooth*, and *dog-tooth violet*, and finally *dogtooth*. A *shooting star* and a *shooting-star* are two very different things, as are also a *grand duke* and a *grand-duke*. The technical vocabularies of trades and sciences are full of similar instances in which well-known words are compounded and given entirely new meanings.

Compounds result from the fact that words which are frequently used in conjunction have a natural tendency to grow together. Many pairs of words which used to be written separately are now joined with a hyphen. Many words which used to be written as hyphenated compounds are now regarded as single words and are written solid. There are thus three natural stages in the formation of compound words. Many of our present compounds have gone through all of these stages. In the following lists you will find typical examples of each of these three classes. The lists are not complete; it would take a large volume to make

them so. The instances here presented have been selected because they are needed by the writer every day and because they illustrate the principles and tendencies underlying the formation of compound words. The usage represented is that of Webster's *New International Dictionary*, 1921 printing, and of the United States Government *Style Book*, edition of 1922. The first list contains one hundred instances in which the words are written separately. The second list contains one hundred examples of hyphenated compounds. The third list contains one hundred examples of compounds which are written as single words.

account book	able-bodied	aforesaid
air castle	absent-minded	afterthought
alarm clock	all-round	alongside
all aboard	awl-shaped	anybody
all right	bald-headed	backache
angle iron	base-burner	backset
ant hill	baggage-master	ballroom
apple pie	basket-ball	barefoot
apple tree	big-eyed	barnyard
ash heap	bird-cage	baseball
assembly room	bird's-eye	bathroom
Attorney General	book-learned	beadwork
auction pitch	brand-new	bedbug
back door	built-in	bedroom
back rest	by-product	beefsteak
back stairs	clear-cut	beekeeper
back step	clear-headed	beforehand
balance book	clear-sighted	billboard
balance sheet	coal-black	birthday
ball bearing	cross-question	blackbird
ballot box	double-faced	bondholder
bank book	double-spaced	bookstore
bank note	drawing-room	bricklayer
bar iron	eagle-eyed	businesslike
bay window	ear-minded	cardboard
basket weave	ex-soldier	carryall
beef cattle	eye-minded	councilman
beef tea	far-away	dashboard
bell boy	far-sighted	dreadnaught
bench mark	feeble-minded	earthquake
bill book	first-class	everybody
birth rate	flat-footed	eyeglass
black bass	flat-headed	faultfinding

black damp	follow-up	ferryboat
book learning	forty-four	firearms
box car	four-wheeled	flywheel
candle power	four-in-hand	foursquare
card index	good-by	frontiersman
cash account	good-humored	gainsay
cast iron	good-natured	greenback
civil service	half-hearted	griddlecake
clearing house	half-mast	gristmill
coal field	half-moon	guardsman
commission agent	hard-headed	guesswork
concert music	heart-shaped	handwriting
cream cheese	helter-skelter	hardware
cross section	high-flown	headline
crown glass	iron-bound	headquarters
cup valve	iron-gray	headstrong
cylinder press	labor-saving	heartbroken
dress goods	law-abiding	helpmate
dress parade	left-handed	herein
dress suit	like-minded	homesick
fellow citizen	long-headed	henceforth
fire escape	long-lived	hereafter
fire insurance	long-suffering	horseback
form letter	machine-made	hotbed
fountain pen	make-believe	hundredweight
free trade	make-up	innkeeper
good morning	man-made	jawbone
ground floor	mid-term	juryman
half dollar	middle-aged	keynote
hard finish	middle-sized	layman
home rule	mother-in-law	makeshift
ice cream	noble-minded	mankind
income tax	off-color	midsummer
lattice window	old-fashioned	network
letter paper	one-horse	nevertheless
Lieutenant Colonel	one-sided	outgoing
life insurance	open-mouthed	overdue
live stock	past-due	pigeonhole
mail box	pigeon-toed	pineapple
meat market	post-mortem	pocketbook
milk shake	poverty-stricken	postmark
mother tongue	rattle-brained	praiseworthy
mutton chop	ready-made	quartermaster
ocean steamer	red-headed	quitclaim
parcel post	right-handed	roommate
pen name	safe-deposit	schoolmate
per cent.	second-hand	sidewalk
plate glass	second-rate	signboard

plug hat	self-confidence	snowball
poll tax	self-respect	songbook
postal card	self-starter	southeast
post office	so-called	standpoint
price list	sober-minded	stockholder
profit sharing	south-southwest	storeroom
proof reader	square-toed	switchboard
railroad company	sure-footed	tablecloth
return ticket	tailor-made	teamwork
safety match	take-off	timekeeper
safety valve	three-quarter	tiptoe
sales letter	time-table	typewriter
street car	to-day	undersell
stub pen	trade-mark	upkeep
ticket office	trade-union	upstairs
trade name	uncalled-for	warehouse
vice president	unheard-of	whatsoever
water works	up-to-date	yearbook
wrought iron	world-wide	zigzag

198. Proof-reading Methods and Marks

A knowledge of established usages in the preparation of manuscript, close attention to these usages, and abundant practice will eliminate most technical errors in writing. But an occasional error will creep into even the most careful work. Every important piece of writing should be examined in its final form to insure that it is free from error of any sort. He who adds his signature to a letter or report that has been typed by some one else will do well to make sure that the writing is entirely correct before he assumes responsibility for it.

In writing intended for publication, and particularly in that writing which is to be published in book form, great care is taken to insure technical correctness. When the type has been set up in "galleys" of about one hundred lines each, impressions called "galley proofs" are taken, and read by professional proof readers employed by the publisher. These readers make marginal notes indicating errors and corrections by means of a set of symbols almost universally employed for that purpose.

The corrected galley proofs are usually sent to the author, who is required to indicate in a similar manner any errors

which he finds, together with any change in manuscript which he considers essential. Every correction should be made in ink in the margin exactly opposite the point at which the error occurs. Small marks indicating the exact location of omissions or errors are permissible in the text, but corrections themselves should not be made between the lines. The author should pay special attention to any questions placed on the proofs by the publisher's reader. Such questions should be answered clearly and concisely. Alterations in manuscript should be avoided as far as possible. When an alteration is indispensable, the author should make an effort to have the substitute matter fill the same amount of space as that which is canceled and thus to avoid the necessity of resetting long passages.

Upon receiving the author's proofs, the publisher's reader checks these with his own, making such changes or additions as are necessary. The corrected proofs then go back to the printer for revision and for paging. Sometimes page proofs are put through the same process as galley proofs. This is especially desirable when there have been numerous corrections or serious alterations in the original. The same marks and methods are employed by the proof reader. Paging is now given special attention. Headings, footnotes, and illustrations must be examined with care. If the previous work has been well done, few if any corrections will be necessary in the page proof. No alterations should be made at this stage except for very unusual reasons.

The following list contains the more common proof-reader's marks, together with their meanings:

PROOF-READER'S MARKS

Ⓐ	Period.
,	Comma.
-	Hyphen.
:	Colon.
;	Semicolon.
ʼ	Apostrophe.
“ ”	Quotations.
□	Em quadrat.
$\frac{1}{m}$	One-em dash.
$\frac{2}{m}$	Two-em parallel dash.
⌞	Push down space.
⌋	Close up.
✓	Less space.
^	Caret—left out, insert.
9	Turn to proper position.
#	Insert space.
⌈ or ⌋	Move to left or to right.
⌊ or ⌋	Move up or move down.
tr.	Transpose.
..... or stat.	Let it stand.
8	Dele—take out.
Ⓐ	Broken letter.
¶	Paragraph.
No ¶	No paragraph.
w. f.	Wrong font.
~ or eq. #	Equalize spacing.
≡ or caps.	Capitals.
= or s. c.	Small capitals.
l. c.	Lower-case.
Ⓔ or 1	Superior or inferior.
— or ital.	Italic.
rom.	Roman.
⌈ ⌋	Brackets.
()	Parentheses.

PASSAGE SHOWING THE USE OF PROOF-READING MARKS

TYPOGRAPHICAL ERRORS.

6: pt. ital. caps

d.c. It does not appear that the earliest printers had any method of correcting errors before the form was on the press. The learned ~~The learned~~ correctors of the first two centuries of printing were not proofreaders in our sense; they were rather what we should term office editors. Their labors were chiefly to see that the proof corresponded to the copy, but that the printed page was correct in its latinity ~~that the words were there~~, and that the sense was right. They cared ~~but~~ little about orthography, bad letters or purely printerly errors, and when the text seemed to them wrong they consulted fresh authorities or altered it on their own responsibility. Good proofs in the modern sense, were ~~not~~ possible until professional readers were employed men who had first a printer's education, and then spent many years in the correction of proof. The orthography of English, which for the past century has undergone little change, was very fluctuating until after the publication of Johnson's Dictionary, and capitals, which have been used with considerable regularity for the past (80) years, were previously used on the miss or hit plan. The approach to regularity, so far as we have, may be attributed to the growth of a class of professional proof readers, and it is to them that we owe the correctness of modern printing. More errors have been found in the Bible than in any other one work. For many generations it was frequently the case that Bibles were brought out stealthily, from fear of governmental interference. They were frequently printed from imperfect texts, and were often modified to meet the views of those who published them. The story is related that a certain woman in Germany, who was the wife of a printer, and had become disgusted with the continual assertions of the superiority of man over woman which she had heard, hurried into the composing room while her husband was at supper and altered a sentence in the Bible, which he was printing, so that it read Narr instead of Herr, thus making the verse read "And he shall be thy fool" instead of "And he shall be thy Lord." The word not was omitted by Barker, the King's printer in England in 1632, in printing the seventh commandment. He was fined £3,000 on this account.

11 v

not
L/

not #
m
i

spell
9/10
I/r

8
3/f/rom.

w.f.
15/22
A/1
up

e
1 1/2
3/8

stet.
2/10

1/10
tr.

1/w.f.

lead.

lead.

Out; see copy
h

l.c./who

11
16/22
1/14/20
over.

4/2

CHAPTER XIV

PARAGRAPH WRITING

199. The Paragraph as a Mechanical Unit

Our word *paragraph* comes from Greek *para*, meaning *beside*, plus Greek *graphos*, meaning *write*. To paragraph thus means literally "to write beside." This etymological meaning reveals the original use of the word *paragraph* by the early printers, who applied it to the symbol ¶. These printers initiated the art of paragraphing by placing the symbol ¶ at occasional intervals in the text for the purpose of breaking up large masses of type into smaller units. At first the symbol was placed between sentences anywhere on the page. Later it was removed from the body of the text to the margin. Still later, the device of indenting an occasional line was substituted for the use of the symbol ¶. The term *paragraph* then came to be applied to the indentation itself.

Paragraphing was thus in its origin a matter of mechanical display. It was introduced as a means of making pages of type more attractive to the eye. The printers discovered that breaks in the printed page provided resting places for the eye and made easier the physical task of reading. The paragraph became established first as a physical and mechanical unit, and as such it came into general use among printers and publishers.

200. The Paragraph as a Thought Unit

Authors began to recognize the value of the symbols and indentations which the printers were employing in setting up their work. They recognized also the fact that these devices were being introduced at arbitrary intervals with

very little reference to the ideas which were being expressed. In order to make their units of thought correspond to the printer's units of type, authors began to paragraph their own works. The practice of paragraphing according to the thought thus became established. This practice has become so universal that we now regard the paragraph as essentially a unit of thought and consider as secondary its functions as a display unit.

The view of the paragraph as a thought unit is reflected in every definition contained in modern books on rhetoric. "The paragraph," says one of these books, "is the largest subdivision of a message and is usually composed of a group of related sentences developing a single phase of a subject." "A paragraph," says another, "is a connected series of sentences constituting the development of a single topic." These two typical definitions indicate two points of view from which we may consider the paragraph as a structural unit of thought. We may consider it from the internal point of view, giving attention to its component parts, the sentences out of which it is composed. This viewpoint has been most succinctly phrased by Barrett Wendell in his dictum, "A paragraph is to a sentence what a sentence is to a word." Or we may consider the paragraph from the external point of view, studying its relation to the larger whole of which it is a component part.

Consideration from both of these viewpoints is essential to any thorough study of the paragraph, for this unit of thought and of type is at the same time an aggregation of smaller units and a subdivision of a larger whole. The following dictionary definition takes account of the paragraph first, as a mechanical unit, and secondly, as a thought unit which may be either dependent or independent. "A paragraph is a short passage in written or printed discourse, begun on a new line, commonly with a space separating the first word from the margin, and usually containing a logical division, or a complete and unified statement, of a particular point of the narrative or treatise."

201. Some Different Kinds of Paragraphs

Paragraphs may be classified in several different ways. We may distinguish between isolated paragraphs, those which constitute whole compositions and are to be judged as such, and related paragraphs, those which constitute subdivisions of larger wholes and are to be judged by their relationship to the other subdivisions and to the composition as a whole. In compositions consisting of several or many paragraphs we may classify these units according to the special functions which they perform. Thus we may distinguish introductory paragraphs, development paragraphs, transitional paragraphs, and concluding paragraphs.

Paragraphs may be further classified according to the writer's primary purpose in constructing them. Thus, a paragraph which is devoted chiefly to analyzing and classifying or to defining and interpreting a topic may be called an expository paragraph. Similarly, a paragraph which is devoted chiefly to proving, by means of facts and reasoning, the truth or falsity of a proposition may be called an argumentative paragraph. A paragraph in which the author seeks primarily to arouse in the reader's mind a mental image or picture may be called a descriptive paragraph. A paragraph in which the writer's principal purpose is to relate a series of events may be called a narrative paragraph.

The methods employed by a writer in developing his various paragraph topics may also be used as a basis of classification. Such methods and combinations of methods are almost limitless in number, for the writer who has originality will often invent his own medium of expression. But a study of numerous paragraphs written by many different authors reveals the fact that there are certain fundamental and standard methods of developing paragraph topics. These fundamental methods are employed, often in new and modified forms, by everyone who writes. Until he can formulate his own methods, the student of writing will do well to familiarize himself with these

universally utilized modes of topic development. The most common methods of topic development are the following:

1. Definition
2. General to Particular
3. Particular to General
4. Examples
5. Comparison and Contrast
6. Analogy
7. Effect to Cause
8. Cause to Effect
9. Authority
10. Refutation
11. Descriptive Details
12. Narrative Details
13. Question and Answer
14. Repetition

202. Isolated Paragraphs

A paragraph is not always and necessarily a subdivision of a larger whole. A single paragraph may contain all that needs to be said upon a given subject at a certain time. Such paragraphs, known as isolated or independent paragraphs, are really whole compositions and are subject to the laws and principles which govern whole compositions of whatever length. Many a business letter, for example, is completed in a single paragraph. The following is a typical example of a one-paragraph business letter.

Your request of December 10th for a copy of our current catalog has been received. We appreciate your interest in our special offering of winter merchandise at pre-war prices. We are confident that you will not be disappointed in any purchases which you make from our carefully selected stock. The demand for our current catalog has been so great that the first edition has been exhausted. The printers are working overtime on a second edition and have promised to have it ready by Friday, the 20th. We shall send you a copy as soon as one is available, and we recommend that you go through it carefully. It will pay you well to do so. Your orders will receive careful and immediate attention.

Abraham Lincoln, master of plain, straightforward, everyday English, condensed into single paragraphs many

of his communications. His famous letter to Major General Hooker, dated January 26, 1863, is a splendid example of what can be accomplished in a single paragraph.

Executive Mansion

Washington, D. C., January 26, 1863

Major General Hooker.

General:

I have placed you at the head of the Army of the Potomac. Of course I have done this upon what appear to me to be sufficient reasons, and yet I think it best for you to know that there are some things in regard to which I am not quite satisfied with you. I believe you to be a brave and skilful soldier, which of course I like. I also believe you do not mix politics with your profession, in which you are right. You have confidence in yourself, which is a valuable if not an indispensable quality. You are ambitious, which, within reasonable bounds, does good rather than harm; but I think that during General Burnside's command of the army you have taken counsel of your ambition and thwarted him as much as you could, in which you did a great wrong to the country and to a most meritorious and honorable brother officer. I have heard, in such a way as to believe it, of your recently saying that both the army and the government needed a dictator. Of course it was not for this, but in spite of it, that I have given you the command. Only those generals who gain successes can set up dictators. What I now ask of you is military success, and I will risk the dictatorship. The government will support you to the utmost of its ability, which is neither more nor less than it has done and will do for all commanders. I much fear that the spirit which you have aided to infuse in the army, of criticising their commander and withholding confidence from him, will now turn upon you. I shall assist you as far as I can to put it down. Neither you nor Napoleon, if he were alive again, could get any good out of an army while such a spirit prevails in it; and now beware of rashness. Beware of rashness, but with energy and sleepless vigilance go forward and give us victories.

Yours very truly,

A. LINCOLN.

Another daily use of the one-paragraph composition may be found on the editorial page of almost any newspaper. Having treated at some length the two or three most im-

portant topics of the day, the editor proceeds to discuss briefly several other topics of lesser importance or of lesser current interest. The following is a typical one-paragraph editorial from a newspaper which contains every day a dozen or more such compositions.

An Ingrown Notion

Prejudice, which is largely loyalty to a notion once implanted in one's head, is responsible for most of our failures to solve our problems, individually and as a government. It bars our minds to the reception of facts, and unless we face facts and are guided by what they teach us, we go wrong. Take the idea that most persons have as to what our laws consist of. Nine men out of ten you meet will cordially agree with you if you remark to them that we have too many laws and that our legislatures would be serving us just as well if they would adjourn the day after they meet. The average number of new laws passed at each session is 300, in Nebraska. That doesn't mean that that number is added to those on the books. The greater part of the new laws are merely amendments to the old ones, the recording of what experience has taught. The principal job of each session is the principal job of the auditor of a big corporation, to correct the books to date and check up on errors. Nine-tenths of the laws on the books, and probably more, do not affect the public generally. They are added to each session because the world moves and its methods change. The severest critics of the legislatures are the men who never saw a statute book.

The paragraph as a unit of discourse is becoming smaller all the time. If some of our journalists and correspondents have their way, the paragraph and the sentence will soon be indistinguishable. No modern writer would dare to follow the practice of those early masters of English prose who often presented a whole article or essay within the limits of a single paragraph. And yet those essays have lived and are read with profit and enjoyment in our own day. Many of Bacon's best-known essays are of this one-paragraph type. Consider, as a typical example, his well-known essay entitled "Of Studies."

Of Studies

Studies serve for delight, for ornament, and for ability. Their chief use for delight, is in privateness and retiring; for ornament, is in discourse; and for ability, is in the judgment and disposition of business; for expert men can execute, and perhaps judge of particulars, one by one; but the general counsels, and the plots and marshalling of affairs come best from those that are learned. To spend too much time in studies, is sloth; to use them too much for ornament, is affectation; to make judgment wholly by their rules, is the humor of a scholar: they perfect nature, and are perfected by experience: for natural abilities are like natural plants, that need pruning by study; and studies themselves do give forth directions too much at large, except they be bounded in by experience. Crafty men contemn studies, simple men admire them, and wise men use them; for they teach not their own use; but that is a wisdom without them and above them, won by observation. Read not to contradict and confute, nor to believe and take for granted, nor to find talk and discourse, but to weigh and consider. Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested; that is, some books are to be read only in parts; others to be read but not curiously; and some few to be read wholly, and with diligence and attention. Some books also may be read by deputy, and extracts made of them by others; but that would be only in the less important arguments and the meaner sort of books; else distilled books are, like common distilled waters, flashy things. Reading maketh a full man; conference a ready man; and writing an exact man; and, therefore, if a man write little, he had need have a great memory; if he confer little, he had need have a present wit; and if he read little, he need have much cunning, to seem to know that he doth not. Histories make men wise; poets, witty; the mathematics, subtle; natural philosophy, deep, moral, grave; logic and rhetoric, able to contend: "*Abeunt studia in mores;*" nay, there is no stand or impediment in the wit, but may be wrought out by fit studies: like as diseases of the body may have appropriate exercises; bowling is good, for the stone and reins, shooting for the lungs and breast, gentle walking for the stomach, riding for the head and the like; so if a man's wit be wandering, let him study the mathematics; for in demonstrations, if his wit be called away never so little, he must begin again; if his wit be not apt to distinguish or find difference, let him study the schoolmen; for they are "*Cymini sectores.*" If he be not apt to beat over matters, and to call up one thing to prove and illustrate another, let him study the lawyers' cases: so every defect of the mind may have a special receipt.

203. Topic Development by Means of Definition

The process of definition plays an important part in all composition. The writer must limit and define for himself, not only the subject as a whole but also each of its several parts, before he attempts to present it to others. In presenting his subject he often finds it advisable to convey to his reader some parts of this process of limiting and defining. In formal expository or argumentative writing the author often begins by marking out for his reader the boundary lines of the discussion. A single sentence is seldom sufficient for this purpose. Introductory paragraphs of definition such as the following, from Seager's *Introduction to Economics*, are frequently employed in formal treatises.

Economics, or political economy, is the social science which treats of man's wants and of the goods (*i. e.*, the commodities and services) upon which the satisfaction of his wants depends. It analyses wants, classifies goods with reference to them, and considers all of the circumstances which affect the production and distribution, or sharing, of goods among the individuals who compose society. In discussing production and distribution economists treat the same problems that engage the attention of business men, but from a social rather than an individual point of view. It is to emphasise this distinction that economics is styled a "social science." A definition easy to remember is that economics is the "social science of business."

Complete formal definitions of large, abstract, or difficult subjects often require whole essays or chapters. Volumes have been written in an effort to define the content of such terms as *education*, *progress*, *civilization*, and *happiness*. When a writer attempts to define one of these terms in a single paragraph, he must utilize concrete methods such as Huxley employs in his definition of a liberal education.

That man, I think, has had a liberal education, who has been so trained in youth that his body is the ready servant of his will, and does with ease and pleasure all the work that, as a mechanism, it is capable of; whose intellect is a clear, cold, logic-engine, with all its parts of equal strength, and in

smooth working order; ready, like a steam engine, to be turned to any kind of work, and spin the gossamers as well as forge the anchors of the mind; whose mind is stored with a knowledge of the great and fundamental truths of Nature and of the laws of her operations; one who, no stunted ascetic, is full of life and fire, but whose passions are trained to come to heel by a vigorous will, the servant of a tender conscience; who has learned to love all beauty, whether of Nature or of art, to hate all vileness, and to respect others as himself. Such an one and no other, I conceive, has had a liberal education; for he is, as completely as a man can be, in harmony with Nature. He will make the best of her, and she of him. They will get on together rarely; she as his ever-beneficent mother; he as her mouthpiece, her conscious self, her minister and interpreter.

The writer on almost any subject finds it necessary to define, either at the beginning of his discussion or at later points, certain terms which are vital to his meaning. Such definitions of terminology are especially important in technical discussions but they are of value in the discussion of almost any subject. If the reader is to get the writer's full and exact meaning, he must know precisely how the terms of the discussion are being employed. In the introduction to his *Complete English Tradesman* Defoe anticipates this need in the following manner.

Being to direct this discourse to the tradesmen of this nation, it is needful in a few words to explain who it is we are to understand by the word *tradesman* and how he is to be qualified in order to merit the title of *complete*. The term *tradesman* is understood in several places in a different manner; for example, in the North of Britain, and in Ireland, a tradesman is taken to be a mechanic; as a smith, carpenter, shoemaker, and the like, whom we call here handicraftsmen. Abroad, they deem tradesmen such only as carry goods about from market to market, or from house to house, to sell; which we usually here call "petty chapmen," in the North "pethers," and in our ordinary speech, "pedlars." But in England, and especially in London, all sorts of warehouse-keepers and shopkeepers, whether wholesale dealers or retailers of goods, are called tradesmen; such are our grocers, mercers, linen and woollen-drapers, Blackwell-hall factors, tobaccoconists, haberdashers, glovers, hosiers, milliners, booksellers, stationers, and all other shopkeepers, who do not actually manufacture the goods they sell.

Most definitions, whether of concrete objects or of abstract qualities, proceed in an affirmative manner. They seek to tell what a thing is or what it does. Sometimes a writer finds it necessary or advantageous to use the negative method, to define a thing by telling what it is not. This procedure is valuable in defining ambiguous terms or in introducing a discussion of subjects against which there is a general prejudice. The negative method is usually inadequate in itself but it can be used effectively as an adjunct to affirmative methods. In his article on "Culture and Agriculture," published in the *Cornell Countryman*, F. W. Howe makes good use of the negative method. Here is one paragraph.

The essence of culture is considerateness. Culture is not to be learned by memorizing books on etiquette. It is not a slavish following of rules, nor the ability to repeat formulas or pronounce big words or interpret dark sentences. Culture is not anything that must be learned from books or by intimate association with select persons or through imitation of distinguished models of excellence. Culture is not anything that can be positively guaranteed as the result of pursuing a prescribed course of study. No student can say, "These and these subjects I shall put into my program, and when I have finished I shall be a man of culture."

204. Topic Development from the General to the Particular

The most common procedure in the development of a paragraph topic is from the general to the particular. The writer first sets forth a topic and then proceeds to develop that topic by means of amplifying particulars and details. He unfolds and clarifies meanings which are inherent in the topic statement but which might be misunderstood by the reader, or perhaps missed altogether, if they were left in their undeveloped condition. The more complicated the subject, the greater is the need for analysis into parts and qualities. The following paragraph from X. W. Putnam's "The Gasoline Engine on the Farm" illustrates the deductive mode of procedure from a general statement to a detailed interpretation of the meaning implied in that statement.

Various forms of farm power have been tried and have failed. The treadmill was not a real power, but a clumsy means of transmitting the limited energy of some animal. It was unsteady, hard to operate, and soon became a synonym for drudgery. Sweep power is hard to move, cumbersome, and usually requires the exposure of its operators to every storm. The water-wheel is of very restricted application. It may easily fail in dry weather and, at best, cannot be moved about. Windmills are objectionable for the same reason; also from the unreliable nature of their motive force. Steam alone has been the only serious competitor of the horse in general farm work; still it is not by any means the ideal farm power.

205. Topic Development from the Particular to the General

The topic idea is not always announced at the opening of a paragraph. Sometimes the writer finds it more effective to begin with details and particulars and to gather these up into a general statement at the end of his paragraph. This method has the advantage of climactic arrangement; it leads the reader from the lesser to the greater, from the particular to the general. It introduces also the element of suspense, since the reader is compelled to read through several sentences before he finds out just what the writer is driving at. Right here lies the great danger of this method. Most present-day readers insist upon knowing immediately what the writer is about. If the writer delays in giving them this information, they soon grow impatient and throw the article aside. To build a whole article or essay on this plan would be unwise. But if it is skilfully handled the inductive mode of proceeding from the particular to the general can be used with great effect in an occasional paragraph. Note how this method is employed in the following one-paragraph editorial.

There is more than passing interest to the change in one of the big manufacturers' clothing advertisements. There are no closer students of the popular mind than the ad. writers. This concern has decided, after deep study, to throw out its young swell with cigarette in teeth and illustrate its clothes by means of red-blooded fellows who are doing something besides dancing and joy riding. The manufacturer decided, for one thing, that his "dude" ads repelled working people and stirred

class sentiment. It is usually accepted as a fact that advertising illustrations represent standardized public ideas. The type of girl the American admires, the type of man he wants to be, are stereotyped in the advertising column. The clothing "dummy" would seem to mark a shifting of American admiration from the leisured timekillers to the sort of men who earn their salt.

206. Topic Development by Means of Examples

One of the commonest types of paragraph from the standpoint of the methods employed is that in which a topic is developed by means of one or more examples. This method can be utilized effectively in the treatment of almost any kind of topic. It is of especial value in the discussion of abstruse subjects. Concrete illustrations furnish the best means yet discovered of making clear the significance of a general law or principle or truth. The procedure in the use of specific instances may be either deductive or inductive. That is to say, the specific instances may either follow or precede the general statement which they serve to elucidate. Often the writer announces his general principle or truth at the opening of a paragraph, follows this by one or more illustrative instances, and concludes by reiterating, perhaps in slightly different words, the generalization with which he began.

Topic development by means of example is commonly found in one or the other of two forms. Either a single example is set forth in considerable detail or several examples are cited more briefly. The following paragraph from Roosevelt's "The Corner-stone of Civilization" illustrates the manner in which a single example may be utilized.

Through cooperative organization our farmers can build up their strength. And normally they can do better in this way than by recourse to an extreme form of state Socialism. The farmers of Denmark, Holland, and parts of France, North Italy, and Germany have pointed the way. In Denmark on a country road in the afternoon one can see a man wearing a cap of the cooperative association push a light wagon through the village, gathering from each house a dozen or two dozen eggs and a roll of butter and cheese. As he takes it he stamps the eggs

and records the quantity delivered in the record book of the member. At the end of his three or four mile trip he meets a half-dozen other men at a small transfer station owned by the cooperative association. There wagons or trucks load the products brought in and haul them to a nearby railroad station where the trucks from five or six transfer stations gather and fill a railroad car. The railroad car starts and in its journey to the seaport meets several dozen additional cars loaded with the products of the association. At the seaport a shipload is waiting and the entire trainload of products is loaded and started for England. In England this ship is unloaded in the warehouse of an English cooperative association. The products—butter, eggs, cheese, milk, and other standard farm outputs—have been contracted for on a sliding scale on a yearly basis in advance. Between the peasant farmer of Denmark and the workingman consumer in London there is no middleman. Handling charges are reduced to the minimum. The gain goes to the producer in the shape of almost the full price and to the consumer in the shape of reduced cost. The cooperative farmers' association of Denmark buys saltpeter and nitrates in Chili by the shipload, and distributes them as they are unloaded in carload lots to the cooperative association in every village at a handling charge that is almost insignificantly small. This is the right way for farmers to organize.

The method of developing a paragraph topic through the citation of several specific instances is well illustrated in the following paragraph from Bryce's "National Characteristics as Moulding Public Opinion."

The Americans are a good-natured people, kindly, helpful to one another, disposed to take a charitable view even of wrongdoers. Their anger sometimes flames up, but the fire is soon extinct. Nowhere is cruelty more abhorred. Even a mob lynching a horse thief in the West has consideration for the criminal, and will give him a good drink of whisky before he is strung up. Cruelty to slaves was unusual while slavery lasted, the best proof of which is the quietness of the slaves during the war when all the men and many of the boys of the South were serving in the Confederate armies. As everybody knows, juries are more lenient to offences of all kinds but one, offences against women, than they are anywhere in Europe. The Southern "rebels" were soon forgiven; and though civil wars are proverbially bitter, there have been few struggles in which the combatants did so many little friendly acts for one another,

few in which even the vanquished have so quickly buried their resentments. It is true that newspapers and public speakers say hard things of their opponents; but this is a part of the game, and is besides a way of relieving their feeling; the bark is sometimes the louder in order that a bite may not follow. Vindictiveness shown by a public man excites general disapproval, and the maxim of letting bygones be bygones is pushed so far that an offender's misdeeds are often forgotten when they ought to be remembered against him.

207. Topic Development by Means of Comparison and Contrast

Another everyday method of developing a paragraph topic is through the use of comparison and contrast. The word *comparison* is here taken to mean the process of pointing out similarities, and the word *contrast* is taken to mean the process of pointing out differences. These processes may be used separately, but in actual daily practice they are usually found together. Sometimes the writer groups all the points of likeness at the beginning of the paragraph and all the points of difference at the end. Sometimes this order is reversed. In some cases the writer says all that he wishes to say about the first object involved in the comparison and contrast before he mentions the second. In other instances the writer uses an alternating method, mentioning a quality or characteristic of the first object and following this immediately with a corresponding quality or characteristic of the second. Various combinations of these methods afford a wide range of opportunity for the development of topics by means of comparison and contrast.

The following paragraph from Bryce's *American Commonwealth* illustrates what we may call the half and half method, in which the author has his say about the first object and then leaves it for the second.

At present most of the American universities are referable to one of two types, which may be described as the older and the newer, or the Private and the Public type. By the Old or Private type I denote a college on the model of a college in Oxford or Cambridge, with a head called the President, and a number of teachers, now generally called professors; a body of governors or trustees in whom the property and general

control of the institution is vested; a prescribed course of instruction which all students are expected to follow; buildings, usually called dormitories, provided for the lodging of the students, and a more or less strict, but always pretty effective discipline enforced by the teaching staff. Such a college is usually of private foundation, and is almost always connected with some religious denomination. Under the term New or Public type I include universities established, endowed, and governed by a State, usually through a body of persons called Regents. In such a university there usually exists considerable freedom of choice among various courses of study. The students, or at least the majority of them, reside where they please in the city, and are subject to very little discipline. There are seldom or never denominational affiliations, and the instruction is often gratuitous.

The alternating method of contrast is well illustrated in this paragraph from Emerson's "Circles."

One man's justice is another's injustice; one man's beauty, another's ugliness; one man's wisdom, another's folly, as one beholds the same objects from a higher point of view. One man thinks justice consists in paying debts, and has no measure in his abhorrence of another who is very remiss in this duty, and makes the creditor wait tediously. But that second man has his own way of looking at things; asks himself, which debt must I pay first, the debt to the rich, or the debt to the poor? the debt of money, or the debt of thought to mankind, of genius to nature? For you, O broker, there is no other principle but arithmetic. For me, commerce is of trivial import; love, faith, truth of character, the aspiration of man, these are sacred; nor can I detach one duty, like you, from all other duties, and concentrate my forces mechanically on the payment of moneys. Let me live onward; you shall find that, though slower, the progress of my character will liquidate all these debts without injustice to higher claims. If a man should dedicate himself to the payment of notes, would not this be injustice? Owes he no debt but money? And are all claims on him to be postponed to a landlord's or a banker's?

208. Topic Development by Means of Analogy

Analogy as a method of topic development combines the method of example with the method of comparison. In the strictest sense of the term an analogy is a comparison, not directly between two objects, but between two sets of re-

relationships. Thus in Tyndall's famous analogy, quoted below, the relationship between the moving hands of a watch and the inner mechanism of that watch is compared to the relationship between the phenomena of nature and the store of force which controls those phenomena. Analogies naturally tend to become figures of speech and in daily discourse are most often found in this form.

In his address on "Scientific Materialism" Tyndall used many analogies and among them the following one.

If you look at the face of a watch, you see the hour and minute-hands, and possibly also a second-hand, moving over the graduated dial. Why do these hands move? and why are their relative motions such as they are observed to be? These questions cannot be answered without opening the watch, mastering its various parts, and ascertaining their relationship to each other. When this is done, we find that the observed motion of the hands follows of necessity from the inner mechanism of the watch when acted upon by the force invested in the spring. The motion of the hands may be called a phenomenon of art, but the case is similar with the phenomena of nature. These also have their inner mechanism and their store of force to set that mechanism going. The ultimate problem of physical science is to reveal this mechanism, to discern this store, and to show that from the combined action of both, the phenomena of which they constitute the basis, must, of necessity, flow.

In his essay on "Farming" in *Society and Solitude* Emerson uses the following suggestive analogy.

In English factories the boy that watches the loom, to tie the thread when the wheel stops to indicate that a thread is broken, is called a *minder*. And in this great factory of our Copernican globe, shifting its sides, rotating its constellations, times, and tides, bringing now the day of planting, then of watering, then of weeding, then of reaping, then of curing and storing—the farmer is the *minder*. His machine is of colossal proportions—the diameter of the water-wheel, the arms of the levers, the power of the battery, are out of all mechanic measure;—and it takes him long to understand its parts and its working. This pump never "sucks"; these screws are never loose; this machine is never out of gear; the vat and piston, wheels and tires, never wear out, but are self-repairing.

209. Topic Development from Effect to Cause

The mind is constantly seeking for explanation of the causes underlying known facts. In childhood we were all eager for such explanations. Probably all of us, at one time or another, puzzled our parents or teachers with such a question as, "Why does it rain?" When we were told that the rain comes from the clouds, we wanted to know, "What makes the clouds? Where do they come from?" As we grow older we lose much of this original curiosity and take the phenomena of nature for granted. But as soon as we meet with a fact which has special significance for us our inquiring attitude of mind reasserts itself. As soon as we find that our income for this month is less than it was last month, or that our gas bill is higher than usual, or that we weigh less than we did a year ago, we instinctively seek for causes. When our morning paper fails to come, or when the telephone will not work, or when the milk tastes sour, we immediately become students of causal relationship. Our daily life is full of such homely instances of efforts to trace the connection between known effects and their unknown causes. Everyday writing is full of similar instances. Here is a paragraph from John Corbin's "English and American Sportsmanship" which illustrates the development of a topic from effect to cause.

The prevalence of out-of-door sports in England, and the amenity of the English sporting spirit, may be laid, I think, primarily, to the influence of climate. Through the long, temperate summer all nature conspires to entice a man out-of-doors, while in America sunstroke is imminent. All day long the village greens in England are thronged with boys playing cricket in many-colored blazers, while every stream is dotted with boats of all sorts and descriptions; and in the evenings, long after the quick American twilight has shut down on the heated earth, the English horizon gives light for the recreations of those who have labored all day. In the winter the result is the same, though the cause is very different. Stupefying exhalations rise from the damp earth, and the livelong twilight that does for day forces a man back for good cheer upon mere animal spirits. In the English summer no normal man could resist the beckoning of the fields and the river. In the winter it is sweat, man, or die.

210. Topic Development from Cause to Effect

In our daily thinking we often proceed from causes to their effects. We infer that a certain known fact produced or will produce certain results. A headline tells us that the railroads have granted an increase in wages, and we remark immediately, "Freight rates will go up again." Or the headline informs us that wages have been cut, and we hastily predict another strike. Congress appropriates money for a new battleship, and we conclude that Japan will do likewise. Millions of men are unemployed, and we anticipate an increase in burglaries. Many of our hasty conclusions are unwarranted, of course. Often we confuse real causes with mere signs. Mr. Hoover has recently called attention to a widespread fallacy of this kind. Holding that Europe's inability to buy from us is due to the rates of exchange, says he, is like holding that a blizzard is caused by the barometer. In his essay on "Agricultural Readjustment" Mr. Hoover uses this interesting paragraph in which he develops his topic from cause to effect.

There is a great weakness in our present railway situation bearing upon the farmer and consumer. Everyone knows of the annual shortage of cars during the crop-moving season. Few people, however, appreciate that this shortage of cars often amounts to a stricture in the free flow of commodities from the farmer to the consumer. The result is that the farmer, in order to sell his produce, often unknown to himself makes a sacrifice in price in local glut. The consumer is compelled at the other end to pay an increased price for foodstuffs due to the shortage in movement. The constant fluctuations in our grain exchanges locally or generally from this cause are matters of public record almost monthly. On one occasion a study was made under my administration into the effect of car shortage in the transportation of potatoes, and we could demonstrate by chart and figure that the margin between the farmer and the consumer broadened 100 per cent. in periods of car shortage. Nor did the middleman make this whole margin of profit, because he was subjected to unusual losses and destruction, and took unusual risks in awaiting a market. The same phenomenon was proved in a large way at the time of acute shortage of movement in corn and other grain.

211. Topic Development by the Citation of Authority

The writer of argumentative discourse is concerned chiefly with the presentation of proof. His topic is usually a controversial proposition. In developing this topic he may present his own reasoning processes or he may present the views of others. Usually these two methods of proof are found in conjunction. A whole composition consisting of quoted testimony would be intolerable. But a single paragraph of such material, used to verify and bolster up the writer's own reasoning, may be very effective. Such a paragraph may consist of only one quotation from an especially eminent authority. An example of this type is shown in the following paragraph from the *Handbook of Simplified Spelling, Part 2*.

Etimologists ar ardent advocates of spelling-reform. Professor Walter W. Skeat, of Cambridge University, the great English etimologist, and author of the "Etimological Dictionary of the English Language," sumd up the views of most other etimological scolars, when he said: "In the interests of etimology we ought to spel as we pronounce. To spel words as they used to be pronounst is not etimological but antiquarian."

Or the paragraph may consist of several brief quotations from one or more authorities. Sometimes the authorities are simply cited and are not quoted at all. The following paragraph from the *Handbook of Simplified Spelling, Part 1*, illustrates the latter method.

Some of the earlier editors of Webster, more timid than he, wer slow to follow his example, but the leading English lexicografers of the present day hav openly exprest themselves in favor of simplifying English spelling, and hav given place, and sometimes preference, in their dictionaries (Century, Oxford English, Standard, Webster's) to many of the simpler spellings that hav been recommended by the learned societies of which they wer members. Other eminent scolars and writers of Webster's day and later who cald attention to the imperfections of English spelling wer William Mitford, Archdeacon Hare, Walter Savage Landor, Isaac Pitman, Bulwer Lytton, Alexander J. Ellis, Horace Mann, Alfred Tennyson, Matthew Arnold, Max Müller and Jacob Grimm,

212. Topic Development by Means of Refutation

Some topics are essentially destructive in purpose. The writer often has to clear away false notions, or answer objections, or meet opposing arguments. In other words, he not only has to present his own views and his own conclusions but he must also take cognizance of other views and other conclusions. The need for this sort of writing is greatest in controversial subjects. But the destructive process plays some part in nearly every piece of expository or argumentative writing. He who proposes a reform or a change of any kind must overcome inertia, or prejudice, or both. Usually he must overcome also the influence exerted by others who are seeking to bring the reader to different conclusions and different actions. The advertiser and sales correspondent must overcome, not only the obstacles of inertia and prejudice, but also the effects in the reader's mind of competitive arguments. In the following paragraph from the *Handbook of Simplified Spelling, Part 2*, the purpose is primarily destructive and the topic is developed by means of refutation.

Some persons admit that the arguments of the Board are sound, even incontrovertible, but object to a change on account of the trouble of learning a new way of spelling. To these the Board answers that they are under no necessity of going to that trouble. Persons of mature years, who have laboriously learned to spell in their youth, and whose habits are fixed, can not be expected—are not expected—to change their spelling-habit. With such persons spelling has become automatized, the hand automatically reacting to the brain, in which thoughts take form in words that the hand writes down in letters. The additional mental effort necessary for them to refrain from writing a useless letter would more than offset the saving of physical effort, for a while. They will, however, have no difficulty in reading what is written or printed in the new spelling. No one who has read to this point in the *Handbook* can honestly say that he failed to recognize every word.

213. Topic Development by Means of Descriptive Details

Almost every piece of writing includes some description. Literary description plays an important part in stories and novels. It would be hard to find a narrative of any kind

or any length which contained no descriptive passages. Description is less frequent in expository and argumentative writing but it is by no means absent from such compositions. There are not many whole compositions of a descriptive nature; but, on the other hand, there are few compositions of any kind in which incidental descriptions are not included. An investigator's main purpose in presenting his results may be expository, but he will almost invariably use some description. An advertiser's main purpose may be argumentative, but he has constant use for description.

Descriptive passages may be classified as scientific or literary, depending upon the writer's purpose and point of view. If he aims primarily to convey exact information about the appearance of a person, an object, or a scene, his description is called scientific. If he aims primarily to arouse emotional response, his description is called literary. A geologist's description of a certain oil field differs greatly from a novelist's description of the same scene. An artist's description of an old country house differs greatly from a real estate broker's description of the same property. In the one description accuracy, completeness, logical order, and economy are the desirable qualities. In the other imaginative appeals, sense stimuli, and associational values are most highly prized. The following paragraphs, both descriptive of Niagara Falls, illustrate these two types of description. The first is from Baedeker's *United States*; the second is from Hawthorne's "My Visit to Niagara," published in *Tales and Sketches*.

The *Falls of Niagara* ("Thunder of Waters"), perhaps the greatest and most impressive of the natural wonders of America, are situated on the *Niagara River*, 22 M. from its head in Lake Erie and 14 M. above its mouth in Lake Ontario. This river forms the outlet of the four great Western lakes (Erie, Huron, Michigan, and Superior), descending about 300 feet in its course of 36 M. and affording a channel to a large part of the fresh water in the globe. Its current is swift for about 2 M. after leaving Lake Erie, but becomes more gentle as the channel widens and is divided into two parts by *Grand Island* (Bedell Ho., a popular summer-hotel, \$2-5). Below the island the stream is $2\frac{1}{2}$ M. wide. About 15 M. from Lake Erie

the river narrows again and the rapids begin, flowing with ever increasing speed until in the last $\frac{3}{4}$ M. above the Falls they descend 55 feet and flow with immense velocity. On the brink of the Falls, where the river bends at right angles from W. to N., the channel is again divided by *Goat Island*, which occupies about one-fourth of the entire width of the river (4770 feet). To the right of it is the *American Fall*, 1060 feet wide and 167 feet high, and to the left of it is the *Canadian* or *Horseshoe Fall*, 158 feet high, with a contour of 3010 feet. The volume of water which pours over the Falls is 15 million cubic feet per minute (about 1 cubic mile per week), of which probably nine-tenths go over the Canadian Fall. Below the Falls the river contracts to 1000-1250 feet, and rushes down foaming and boiling between lofty rocky walls. Two miles farther down it is barely 800 feet wide, and at the Whirlpool the huge volume of water is compressed into a space of 250 feet. Within 7 M. these lower rapids descend over 100 feet, but at Lewiston the river once more becomes wider and smoother.

It was an afternoon of glorious sunshine, without a cloud, save those of the cataracts. I gained an insulated rock, and beheld a broad sheet of brilliant and unbroken foam, not shooting in a curved line from the top of the precipice, but falling headlong down from height to depth. A narrow stream diverged from the main branch, and hurried over the crag by a channel of its own, leaving a little pine-clad island and a streak of precipice between itself and the larger sheet. Below arose the mist, on which was painted a dazzling sunbow with two concentric shadows—one, almost as perfect as the original brightness; and the other, drawn faintly round the broken edge of the cloud. Still I had not seen Niagara. Following the verge of the island, the path led me to the Horseshoe, where the real, broad St. Lawrence, rushing along on a level with its banks, pours its whole breadth over a concave line of precipice, and thence pursues its course between lofty crags towards Ontario. A sort of bridge, two or three feet wide, stretches out along the edge of the descending sheet, and hangs upon the rising mist, as if that were the foundation of the frail structure. Here I stationed myself in the blast of wind, which the rushing river bore along with it. The bridge was tremulous beneath me, and marked the tremor of the solid earth. I looked along the whitening rapids, and endeavored to distinguish a mass of water far above the falls, to follow it to their verge, and go down with it, in fancy, to the abyss of clouds and storm. Casting my eyes across the river, and every side, I took in the whole scene at a glance, and tried to comprehend it in one vast idea. After an hour thus spent. I

left the bridge, and, by a staircase, winding almost interminably round a post, descended to the base of the precipice. From that point, my path lay over slippery stones, and among great fragments of the cliff, to the edge of the cataract, where the wind at once enveloped me in spray, and perhaps dashed the rainbow round me. Were my long desires fulfilled? And had I seen Niagara?

214. Topic Development by Means of Narrative Details

The term *narration*, as it is used in rhetoric, is a very inclusive one. Histories, biographies, autobiographies, short stories, novels, and dramas are all classified under the general head of narration. Obviously, none of these forms can be developed within the limits of a single paragraph. But a single paragraph within a biography or a novel may contain a unified narrative of some simple incident. So also in expository and argumentative compositions an occasional paragraph is devoted to relating an incident or an anecdote. Such narrative paragraphs, although they are incidental to the main purpose, often contain concrete illustrations which are more effective in making clear the writer's meaning than are the primary proofs or demonstrations themselves. A well chosen anecdote will make the most abstract principle easily understood and long remembered. Huxley, wishing to show in degree the effect of drill upon a man's nervous system, tells of the discharged veteran who was going down the street with his arms full of packages. When someone near shouted "Attention!" the veteran stopped short, brought his hands down, and lost all of his groceries in the gutter. Franklin's *Autobiography* is full of incidents and anecdotes, many of which have become universally known. In the early part of the work he relates how he was criticized by his father for his manner of writing and how he endeavored to improve in this art. We can all profit by the suggestions in the following paragraph.

About this time I met with an odd volume of the *Spectator*. It was the third. I had never before seen any of them. I bought it, read it over and over, and was much delighted with it. I thought the writing excellent, and wished, if possible, to

imitate it. With this view I took some of the papers, and, making short hints of the sentiment in each sentence, laid them by a few days, and then, without looking at the book, try'd to compleat the papers again, by expressing each hinted sentiment at length, and as fully as it had been expressed before, in any suitable words that should come to hand. Then I compared my *Spectator* with the original, discovered some of my faults, and corrected them. But I found I wanted a stock of words, or a readiness in recollecting and using them, which I thought I should have acquired before that time if I had gone on making verses; since the continual occasion for words of the same import, but of different length, to suit the measure, or of different sound for the rhyme, would have laid me under a constant necessity of searching for variety, and also have tended to fix that variety in my mind, and make me master of it. Therefore I took some of the tales and turned them into verse; and, after a time, when I had pretty well forgotten the prose, turned them back again. I also sometimes jumbled my collections of hints into confusion, and after some weeks endeavored to reduce them into the best order, before I began to form the full sentences and compleat the paper. This was to teach me method in the arrangement of thoughts. By comparing my work afterwards with the original, I discovered many faults and amended them; but I sometimes had the pleasure of fancying that, in certain particulars of small import, I had been lucky enough to improve the method or the language, and this encouraged me to think I might possibly in time come to be a tolerable English writer, of which I was extremely ambitious. My time for these exercises and for reading was at night, after work or before it began in the morning, or on Sundays, when I contrived to be in the printing-house alone, evading as much as I could the common attendance on public worship which my father used to exact on me when I was under his care, and which indeed I still thought a duty, though I could not, as it seemed to me, afford time to practise it.

215. Topic Development from Question to Answer

The development of a topic by means of questions and answers is a favorite device among public speakers. This method can often be employed with good effect in written discourse. The writer may cast his topic idea into the form of a question and devote the remainder of the paragraph to answering this question. Or he may construct his paragraph in the form of a series of several questions, each

question followed by its answer. The question and answer method is one of the best devices for arousing interest and for giving emphasis to an idea. But like any other special device it must be used sparingly or it will lose its value. Lincoln knew the power of this mode of presentation and made effective use of it. In an address before the Wisconsin State Agricultural Society in 1859 he included the following paragraph.

What would be the effect upon the farming interest to push the soil up to something near its full capacity? Unquestionably it will take more labor to produce fifty bushels from an acre than it will to produce ten bushels from the same acre; but will it take more labor to produce fifty bushels from one acre than from five? Unquestionably thorough cultivation will require more labor to the acre; but will it require more to the bushel? If it should require just as much to the bushel, there are some probable, and several certain, advantages in favor of the thorough cultivation. It is probable it would develop those unknown causes which of late years have cut down our crops below their former average. It is almost certain, I think, that by deeper plowing, analysis of the soils, experiments with manures and varieties of seeds, observance of seasons, and the like, these causes would be discovered and remedied. It is certain that thorough cultivation would spare half, or more than half, the cost of land, simply because the same product would be got from half, or from less than half, the quantity of land. This proposition is self-evident, and can be made no plainer by repetitions or illustrations. The cost of land is a great item, even in new countries, and it constantly grows greater and greater, in comparison with other items as the country grows older.

216. Topic Development Through Repetition

Some topics can be treated most effectively by means of repetition. This is especially true of abstruse topics which offer little opportunity for concrete illustration. The device of repetition may also be used for the purpose of securing additional force and emphasis. Forcefulness may sometimes be gained by repeating verbatim at the end of a paragraph the topic announced at the beginning. But this sort of repetition does not constitute topic development. In developing a topic through repetition the writer re-

peats his chief idea in several succeeding sentences but varies the manner of expression in each case. The same thought is presented in different forms. Herein lies the value of this method. The reader who fails to get the full import of the topic upon its first statement may grasp its meaning in a later restatement. He who understood it thoroughly the first time will find it driven home more deeply by the following repetitions. Ex-President Wilson is a master of this method of development. Here is a typical paragraph from his War Message of April 2, 1917.

The present German submarine warfare against commerce is a warfare against mankind. It is a war against all nations. American ships have been sunk, American lives taken, in ways which it has stirred us very deeply to learn of, but the ships and people of other neutral and friendly nations have been sunk and overwhelmed in the waters in the same way. There has been no discrimination. The challenge is to all mankind. Each nation must decide for itself how it will meet it. The choice we make for ourselves must be made with a moderation of counsel and a temperateness of judgment befitting our character and our motives as a nation. We must put excited feeling away. Our motive will not be revenge or the victorious assertion of the physical might of the Nation, but only the vindication of right, of human right, of which we are only a single champion.

217. The Paragraph of Introduction

Good writers apply the principle of the division of labor to their paragraphs. In a well constructed composition each paragraph has its own special work to do. Most of these units naturally belong to the body of the discussion, each one developing a particular phase or division of the whole subject. A complete composition requires, in addition to these development paragraphs, certain other paragraphs with specialized functions. These we call paragraphs of introduction, paragraphs of transition, and paragraphs of conclusion.

Methods of introduction vary considerably with the nature of the subject and the occasion. The most generally applicable method of introducing an expository or argu-

mentative subject is that of limiting and defining the subject and of sketching briefly the main topics to be developed in the following discussion. It is a good plan to open an expository or argumentative discussion by telling your reader what you propose to do. In this manner you prepare the reader's mind for a willing consideration, if not for a ready acceptance, of your ideas. Topics should be announced in the introduction in the exact order in which they are treated in the later discussion. The relative importance of the different topics may also be indicated in the introductory announcement. The introduction should be thoroughly consistent with the main body of the discussion. All topics which are formally announced should be developed. No topic of major importance should be included in the discussion unless it has been specifically included or logically implied in the preliminary announcement. When you have marked out your boundary lines and laid down your plan of action in a formal introduction, be sure to carry out your plan completely and consistently.

The following paragraph from Hadley's "The Political Duties of the Citizen" is an excellent example of the formal introductory paragraph in which the writer analyzes his subject and prepares his reader for what is coming.

I still think that every American citizen ought to assume political responsibilities. But as I look at the matter, there are at least four different ways in which this can be done; and the obligations which go with these different ways of fulfilling civic duty are themselves widely different. One man may desire to go into politics as a most important part of the business of his life, with the hope of receiving elective offices and attaining a dominant position in the counsels of his party. Another may strive to influence the conduct of our public affairs indirectly, by his activity in behalf of civil service reform and other measures calculated to promote better government. A third may reserve his political activity for special emergencies, when some grave crisis, national or local, justifies him in an exceptional expenditure of time and strength. A fourth may content himself with that general influence on the conduct of political affairs which is exercised by every citizen who forms his moral judgment independently and expresses it fearlessly.

218. The Paragraph of Transition

The transitional paragraph has been likened to a link, to a coupling, and to a bridge. All of these comparisons are helpful in suggesting the function of the transitional unit in composition. The transitional paragraph serves to connect preceding parts of the discussion to the following parts. In its simplest form the transitional paragraph is a double-armed sign post pointing out to the reader what part of the discussion he has left behind and what part he is now about to enter upon. However much it may be disguised or ornamented, this pointing backward and forward is always the essential function of the transitional paragraph. It should perform this function in a clear, smooth, and readable manner. Crudely constructed transitions are the most conspicuous labels of amateurish writing. In his chapter on "The Frame of National Government" Bryce uses the following typical paragraph of transition.

The account which has been so far given of the working of the American Government has been necessarily an account rather of its mechanism than of its spirit. Its practical character, its temper and color, so to speak, largely depend on the party system by which it is worked, and on what may be called the political habits of the people. These will be described in later chapters. Here, however, before quitting the study of the constitutional organs of government, it is well to sum up the criticisms we have been led to make, and to add a few remarks, for which no fitting place could be found in preceding chapters, on the general features of the National Government.

219. The Paragraph of Conclusion

At the close of a discussion of some length both the writer and his reader feel the need of a summarizing re-statement of the main idea. If the writer merely stops at the end of the last phase or subdivision of his idea, his work carries an impression of incompleteness. The longer and more complicated the discussion, the greater is the need for gathering up its various strands into concentrated form at the end. Conclusions, like introductions, may be varied almost infinitely to suit particular purposes or occa-

sions. One may close a discussion by relating an anecdote or by applying his general principle to a concrete case. One may close by quoting authorities on the subject under discussion or by predicting future developments in this field. But the most generally applicable form of conclusion is the summary. This may be highly formal, consisting of an exact repetition of the principal topics which were announced at the outset and repeated at appropriate points throughout the discussion. The order of points in such a summary should be the same as that in the introduction and in the body. It is best to include only the major topics, to state these in the most forceful manner, and to close with a direct statement of the central subject of the whole discussion. The summary may be less formal, containing in new words a condensed synopsis of the writer's best thought on the whole subject. The first of the following paragraphs, from the chapter on "Land and Natural Forces" in Seager's *Introduction to Economics*, illustrates the method of the formal summary. The second paragraph, from the chapter on "The Social Revolution" in Le Rossignol's *Orthodox Socialism*, illustrates the less formal type of summary. Both of the methods here illustrated are highly effective.

In this chapter attention has been called to the natural differences between different pieces of land, to the law of diminishing returns which restrains men from trying to derive more than a certain product from each piece of land, and to the special profit or rent which arises in consequence of the fact that lands of different qualities are employed to supply the same commodities in the same markets. It has just been shown that differences in situation in relation to markets are equally potent in determining rents.

Orthodox Socialism proceeds from Germany, and bears the earmarks of its origin. The British and American spirit is quite different, being neither optimistic nor pessimistic, but rather melioristic, in its attitude toward the evils of the present time. It is a spirit of compromise and common sense, whereby abuses tend to be eliminated one by one, as fast as may be, without an accumulation of evils necessitating a revolution to sweep them all away. In this way the English and American constitutions have gradually grown to fit the political body

like a skin, and not like a ready-made suit of clothes. In this way many of the abuses of capitalism have been removed, and many more will be removed in time to come. Socialists do not sufficiently consider the evolution of law as an essential part of social evolution. They speak of economic and political evolution, but appear to regard the law as a system of cast-iron customs, rigid fetters, binding the limbs of society in the dungeon of an outworn civilization, not removable one by one, but altogether in the throes of a terrible revolution, when, like Samson of old, society says, "I will go out and shake myself."

220. Unity in the Paragraph

The original purpose of the printers in breaking up their pages of type into smaller sections was to make things easier for the reader. When writers began to paragraph their own work their purpose was, similarly, to assist the reader to grasp with a minimum of effort the ideas under consideration. As time has passed, more and more obligation has been imposed upon the writer, until to-day readers refuse to bother with a writer who does not make himself entirely and immediately clear. This is true especially of such writing as is done for practical purposes in the conduct of daily affairs. Without clearness such writing will inevitably fail. In attaining the indispensable quality of clearness correct paragraphing is one of the most important factors.

To be correct and clear a paragraph must first of all be unified. It must be limited to one specific phase of the subject under consideration. It must have definite boundary lines and it must keep within its proper borders. The principle of unity is violated by the introduction of anything extraneous. But this principle is also violated, and in these days even more commonly, by a failure to treat adequately the special phase or subdivision of the topic. Whereas the older writer sometimes rambled leisurely on far beyond proper paragraph limits, modern writers seem inclined to stop long before they have exhausted their paragraph topic. This is especially true of the writers of business communications. Letter writers commonly take a fresh start before this is called for. A good paragraph contains the exact amount of material needed for the treat-

ment of its topic, neither too much nor too little. What is the exactly proper development of a particular topic can not be determined by any rule or formula. The judgment necessary to solve this problem must be developed through long study and continued practice.

221. Coherence in the Paragraph

The paragraph may be likened to a pigeonhole or a filing drawer devoted exclusively to matters pertaining to a certain topic. A miscellaneous collection of words and sentences will not make a good paragraph any more than a haphazard accumulation of letters or balance sheets will make a good file. The essential thing in a good paragraph as in a good file is system, some logical principle of organization which will put each letter in the file and each sentence in the paragraph exactly where it belongs. In the terminology of composition this basic principle is known as coherence.

As there are many ways of systematizing the materials in a file, just so there are many ways of organizing the materials in a paragraph. We may follow the order of time, beginning with the earlier and ending with the later. We may follow the order of importance, beginning with the items of lesser significance and proceeding in climactic order to the point of greatest consequence. We may follow the order of effect to cause or of cause to effect. We may group our ideas on the basis of similarity or of dissimilarity, or first of the one and then of the other. We may proceed deductively from a general truth or proposition to the details which clarify or prove it. Or we may proceed inductively, marshalling our facts first and leading the reader by logical steps to the desired conclusion. Whatever order or method we use in any given case, the fundamental principle to remember is that there must be a logical sequence of thoughts within the paragraph and that this logical sequence must be made readily apparent to the reader.

In order to make the internal organization of the paragraph clear and apparent, each individual sentence must be in its appropriate place. Furthermore, each sentence

must be so constructed that it dovetails into the preceding and following sentences. This dovetailing of succeeding thoughts depends largely upon a careful use of connecting words and phrases. Choose connectives which link your thoughts firmly together and reveal precisely the relationship between them.

222. Emphasis in the Paragraph

A good paragraph must contain a distinct unit of thought developed with continuity. The careful writer has for each of his paragraphs, as he has for his whole composition, a single central purpose to which he relates all of his material. He makes this relationship so clear that no reader can possibly mistake any secondary or incidental thought for the main idea.

The good writer recognizes the paragraph as a mechanical and physical unit. He realizes that the beginning and the end of this unit stand out more prominently for the eye than do any other parts of a printed page. He makes an effort to place in these most conspicuous positions the thoughts which he regards as most important, or which he is most desirous of conveying to his reader. He does not waste the valuable space at the beginning and the end on mere connectives or transitional words. This does not mean that he neglects his connectives. It means that he utilizes even the connecting tissue in his composition in such a way as to throw into bold relief his major ideas and to give to each idea the stress which it deserves. Skim over any chapter or article with a view to getting a general notion as to what it contains and you will find your eye taking in the words immediately preceding and following the white spaces which separate the paragraphs. If the writer has applied the principle of emphasis by position, you will be able to get from a cursory examination of his article a fairly accurate notion of his main ideas and purposes. If, on the other hand, he has buried his principal thoughts deep in the middle of his paragraphs, you will have to read virtually every word of the article before you can get any notion of its real content.

Emphasis in the paragraph is secured, not only by placing the most important ideas in the most conspicuous positions, but also by giving to each idea an amount of space and treatment proportionate to its importance. A thought of minor significance may be cast into a single clause; a thought of more importance may be given a complete sentence; a thought of great consequence may be developed in a series of several sentences. When ideas of varying importance are arranged in climactic order, proceeding from least significant to most significant, and are also developed and amplified to an extent commensurate with their relative importance, the greatest possible emphasis is secured.

Various other means of securing emphasis may be employed. The most important idea may be repeated several times in forms slightly varied but sufficiently similar to secure the effect of reiteration. The sentence length may be varied in such a way as to secure emphasis. One short sentence in the midst of several long ones stands out sharply and emphatically. Mechanical devices such as printing in italics, in capital letters, or in red ink may be used to secure emphasis. But the careful writer will be on his guard against all such mechanical devices, not only because they savor of sensationalism, but also because they are inferior in power to the natural means of securing emphasis. Effective emphasis results from skilful use of position and proportion.

223. The Topic Sentence

Out of efforts to secure unity, coherence, and emphasis in the paragraph has grown the use of the topic sentence, a single statement containing the essence of the paragraph in which it occurs. The topic sentence is found most frequently as the first sentence of the paragraph, less frequently as the last sentence, and occasionally between these two. Wherever it occurs, the topic sentence sums up the particular phase of the whole subject to which a certain paragraph is devoted. It furnishes the reader with the key

to one section of the discourse and if well constructed it is of great value.

The value of the topic sentence to the reader and its frequent use by many writers have led some persons to insist that every paragraph must have such a sentence, regardless of purpose or circumstances. But this is carrying the rule too far. Many a paragraph is intelligible without the aid of this device. It is in long and complicated paragraphs that the topic sentence is most needed. Artificiality and monotony result from opening every paragraph with a formal topic statement. But we must not overlook the value of these topic statements to the writer as well as to the reader. When he uses this device, the writer is compelled to formulate within the smallest possible space the exact idea which he is trying to convey. He must concentrate within the limits of a single sentence the content of a whole paragraph. This is a valuable exercise for anyone who desires to master the art of writing. The learner will therefore do well to make liberal use of topic sentences.

224. Proper Paragraph Length

Modern readers often find fault with certain writings because the paragraphs are too long. What is a long paragraph? *Long* and *short* are purely relative terms, definable only by means of comparison and contrast. A yardstick is long as compared with a foot rule but short as compared with a surveyor's tape line. The distance from New York to Chicago is long as compared with the distance from New York to Philadelphia, but it is short as compared with the distance from New York to San Francisco. It all depends upon the standard of measurement. What is the standard by which we can measure paragraph length? The idea to be expressed, its intrinsic importance when taken by itself and its relative importance in the discussion as a whole, furnishes the logical basis for determining the amount of space that it should be given. A paragraph, like a piece of cloth, should be cut for a specific purpose and occasion. The development of abstract philosophical ideas in a learned treatise will demand longer paragraphs than mere state-

ments of fact in a business letter or a newspaper article. The endeavor to placate an angry complainant will require longer paragraphs than the acknowledgment of an order.

But we must not overlook the fact that a paragraph is a mechanical unit as well as a thought unit and that the eye takes in a paragraph of three or four lines much more easily than it takes in one of fifteen or twenty lines. A paragraph might sometimes run into several pages of print and still be a good thought unit. It might have distinctive unity, logical organization, and effective emphasis. But ninety-nine out of a hundred modern readers would call such a paragraph unattractive, heavy, and difficult. A series of several such paragraphs would drive away nearly every reader. Older writers indulged in long paragraphs with impunity. But the tendency of our day is distinctly toward the short paragraph as well as the short sentence. One writer lays down the arbitrary rule that no paragraph should exceed one page of print, that is, about three hundred words. The same writer defines as a short paragraph one that occupies less than one-third of a printed page, that is, about one hundred words.

The tendency toward the short paragraph is especially noticeable in business letters and advertisements. In these we find many a paragraph that consists of a single sentence. A short paragraph is doubtless easier to read and to grasp than is a long paragraph. In his eagerness to get his material read the business writer has carried brevity to an extreme. This tendency has gone so far that one writer lays down the law that no business paragraph should be over six lines long. This is like saying that no trousers should be over thirty inches long or that no shoes should be over size seven. From the nature of the circumstances most letter paragraphs will be shorter than most book paragraphs. But to say that a long paragraph is never needed in a letter or that a short paragraph is never needed in a book is obvious folly. Each has its legitimate place and proper use, depending upon the idea to be conveyed and the effect to be produced. The nearest approximation to a sensible standard of measurement for paragraph length

is to say that each paragraph should be adapted in length, as in other qualities, to the particular purpose for which it is designed.

225. Good Paragraphing as an Art

A study of numerous paragraphs which have been constructed by many different writers on widely varying subjects reveals the fact that there is a generally accepted standard among successful writers as to what a good paragraph should be. A good paragraph, all of these writers agree, must possess the qualities of unity, or singleness of purpose; of coherence, or logical organization of materials; and of emphasis, or proportionate development and proper placing of parts. A study of the practice of successful writers reveals the further fact that there are certain standard plans or types of topic development which, in modified and adapted form, are used over and over. It is these fundamental principles and methods which we have been considering and illustrating in preceding sections.

Present teaching of composition is based upon the belief that the principles which are revealed through an analytical study of the works of successful writers can be appropriated and utilized by the learner in his efforts to write. If you have found any helpful suggestions, use them as wisely as you can. If you have found any good specimens, learn all that you can from them. Remember that rules and specimens are valuable to you only insofar as they suggest methods which you can incorporate into your own work. Do not look for a formula which will solve all of your problems at once or a pattern which will enable you to turn out good paragraphs as a die turns out coins. You may draw many suggestions and much inspiration from the work of others, but if your paragraphs are to be successful they must be in every essential respect your own.

Actual practice in the application of principles and in the use of methods is the only road to a mastery of the art of writing. The conscious following of rules and the deliberate imitation of examples found necessary in the

early stages of the process of mastering any art are justifiable because they are the means of aiding the learner to progress beyond those early stages. The purpose of a study of the principles of paragraph writing and of specimens of well written paragraphs is to assist the learner in developing his own resourcefulness. He studies principles and specimens in order that he may be freed from the necessity of consciously applying these principles or of deliberately imitating these specimens. Your study of the paragraph will be fruitful in exactly the degree to which it achieves this result.

In making a study of the paragraph through the medium of rules and specimens there are certain dangers to be avoided. Any statement of a rule or a principle is bound to appear somewhat dogmatic. Specimens which are presented for the purpose of illustrating particular points are not always model compositions in all respects. The student should take cognizance of these facts. He should understand that many of the rules which are stated with definiteness are, after all, somewhat flexible. He should realize that it is this flexibility, this room for the expression of individuality, which distinguishes the principles of an art from the laws of a science. No scientific formula will ever enable any person to turn out a good paragraph on any subject at any time or place, regardless of circumstances. The writing of good paragraphs is an art and will always remain an art.

APPENDIX

SUGGESTED PROBLEMS AND EXERCISES

The following problems and exercises are intended to be representative and suggestive rather than exhaustive. They may be modified to suit the needs of particular students or classes. Any instructor who so desires can easily add more exercises under those chapters or sections which he wishes to stress. Perhaps some instructors will prefer to use their own exercises altogether. But many will find in this appendix material that will be valuable in furnishing the student with opportunities to apply the principles of correct and effective writing. There are only three roads to a mastery of the art of composition. These roads are practice, more practice, and still more practice.

CHAPTER I

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE GOOD BUSINESS LETTER

1. Interview several business men of your acquaintance and get the views of each man on the importance of letters in his particular business. Make a report on the result of your investigation.
2. Find out similarly what importance these men attach to the correct use of English in everyday affairs. Report your findings.

CHAPTER II

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF THE BUSINESS LETTER

1. Find current or recent magazine articles dealing with business correspondence. Outline the contents of one article on this subject.
2. Interview a business man of your acquaintance and find out what qualities he considers most important in a business letter. Submit a report on your findings.
3. Make an inventory of your qualifications as a business correspondent. Base your estimate upon the qualifications set forth in Section 19.

CHAPTER III

THE MECHANICAL LAYOUT AND MAKE-UP OF THE BUSINESS LETTER

1. Gather specimens of actual business letters and study the stationery, letter-heads, margins, and spacing. Make a concise report, showing the results of your study.

2. If you know of any firms which have adopted standard forms for their correspondence, secure specimen letters showing these forms. What is your opinion of these particular forms?

3. Find among actual business letters specimens of the block form and of the indented form. Which of these forms do you prefer? Why?

4. Write original headings illustrating the one line, the two line, and the three line forms.

5. Write original headings illustrating the indented form and the block form.

6. Write original headings illustrating the differences between close and open punctuation.

7. Write from each of the following groups of data a complete and correct heading:

- a. Illinois, 1922, State Street, March 4, Chicago, 4860
- b. 1520, Seattle, June 21, Park Avenue, 1922, Washington
- c. July 3, Salt Lake City, Colfax Street, 1922, 1420, Utah
- d. Medicine Bow, 1922, Box 15, Wyoming, September 16
- e. Rose Boulevard, 1922, Ohio, October 20, Cincinnati, 1748
- f. 1922, 10th Avenue, Mo., 1616, East, Kansas City, Dec. 6

8. Write original introductory addresses illustrating the two line, three line, and four line forms.

9. Write original introductory addresses illustrating the use of the block form and the indented form.

10. Write original introductory addresses illustrating close punctuation and open punctuation.

11. Write original introductory addresses illustrating the use of a special address.

12. Write from each of the following groups of data a complete and correct introductory address:

- a. Iowa, Best Mfg. Co., Monroe St., Des Moines, 1048, A. B. Jones
- b. Sixth Ave., N. J., Atlas Steel Co., 1642-1648, Newark
- c. Frisco, Calif., Fruit Growers, Inc., Bay St., 1316
- d. Manager, Pennsylvania, 1718, The Wise Adv. Co., Water St., attention of, Philadelphia, Steel, A. M.
- e. 1226, New Orleans, Southern Realty Co., Louisiana, Pineapple Ave.
- f. John Jones, Arizona, in care of, Prairie Center, Box 62, A. B. Smith

13. From data dictated by the instructor, construct additional headings and introductory addresses.

14. Supply the proper salutation and complimentary close in each of the foregoing examples.

CHAPTER IV

SOME EVERYDAY LETTERS

1. In reply to a newspaper or magazine advertisement, write a letter requesting information.

2. Write a routine inquiry concerning current prices on some product in which you are interested.

3. Write a special inquiry concerning a subject which you are investigating.

4. Reply to one of the above inquiries, granting the request in full.

5. Reply to one of the above inquiries, granting the request in part.

6. Reply to one of the above inquiries, refusing the request entirely.

7. Write a complete and correct letter ordering goods.

8. From data dictated by the instructor write additional order letters.

9. Acknowledge the receipt of one of the foregoing orders.

10. Write a "letter of credit" such as is discussed in Section 38.

11. Assuming that you are a retail grocer in a small town, write to a city wholesale house with which you have never done any business, asking for credit privileges.

12. Assuming that you are the wholesaler who receives the letter written in Exercise 11, write to a bank in the retailer's town asking for credit information about the applicant.

13. Assuming that you are the wholesaler who receives the letter written in Exercise 11, write to the applicant himself, asking for more specific information about his business.

14. Reply to the credit application written in Exercise 11, granting the applicant's request.

15. Reply to the credit application in Exercise 11, refusing the applicant's request.

16. Assume that you are the collection correspondent for the Black Diamond Coal Company. Mr. X. Y. Zeno bought five tons of coal from your company at fifteen dollars a ton. The coal was delivered on September 10th. On October 1st you sent a form statement. On November 1st you sent a similar statement. Now, on November 15th, you send him a letter of reminder.

17. On December 1st you send Mr. Zeno a second letter of reminder.

18. On December 15th you write Mr. Zeno a personal letter, seeking to discover why he has failed to reply.

19. On January 1st you write Mr. Zeno an urgent letter, pointing out the serious nature of the case.

20. On January 15th you write Mr. Zeno a more urgent letter, suggesting special arrangements to cover his case and appealing to his self-interest.

21. On February 1st you write Mr. Zeno, appealing to fear and threatening drastic action on February 15th.

CHAPTER V

LETTERS OF COMPLAINT AND ADJUSTMENT

1. Assuming that you as a retailer have received a shipment of damaged goods from a wholesaler, write a frank letter asking for an adjustment.

2. Assuming that you purchased a nationally advertised article, that the article was imperfect, and that the local dealer refused to give you satisfaction, write a letter of complaint to the manufacturer.

3. Assuming that you have received from your local grocer a statement covering goods which you have already paid for, write the grocer a straightforward letter.

4. Assuming that you have received some Christmas goods on January 2nd, return the goods and write an appropriate letter.

5. Assuming that you are the receiver of one of the foregoing complaints, write an appropriate and effective reply.

6. Reply to the letters of complaint which are reprinted in Section 51, handling each one in the most appropriate manner.

7. Assuming that you have discovered an error in your own actions of yesterday, write to the person concerned before he has time to make a complaint.

8. Reply to a serious complaint, admitting that you were wholly to blame for the trouble.

9. Reply to a complaint, granting the request made, even though the customer was obviously at fault.

10. Refuse a customer's request because he is entirely to blame for the situation about which he complains.

11. Refuse a complainant's request because a third party is at fault.

12. Refuse a complainant's request because it is impossible to place responsibility for the error,

CHAPTER VI

THE APPLICATION AND RELATED LETTERS

1. Write a formal letter of inquiry to an employer who has advertised a vacancy in his force. Ask specific questions about the position.

2. Write an informal inquiry to a friend of yours who is now in the employ of a company that has advertised a vacancy.

3. Write ten good opening sentences for a letter of application, showing a variety of approaches to the main subject.

4. Apply for an advertised position of some consequence. Make your selection from a magazine or trade journal.

5. Apply for a position which has not been advertised but which you have heard of through a representative of the company.

6. Apply on your own initiative for a position which has not been announced in any way.

7. Write a follow-up application for one of the foregoing situations.

8. Write a formal request to a reference, asking for permission to use his name in a specified connection.

9. Write a similar request, but more informal, to a friend.

10. Assuming that you are the employer who has received one of the applications written in the foregoing exercises, write to a reference, requesting specific information about the applicant.

11. Assuming that you have received an incomplete application but one which suggests ability, write to the applicant himself requesting certain specific information.

12. Assuming that you are the reference addressed in Exercise 10, write a letter of recommendation in which you give the applicant whole-hearted indorsement.

13. Reply to a similar request concerning a person whose qualifications you are less certain about.

14. Assuming that you have just been notified of your appointment to a position for which you had applied, write a letter of acknowledgment to your future employer.

15. Under the same circumstances as in Exercise 14, write a letter of appreciation to the reference who gave you most assistance in securing this position.

16. Write an open letter of recommendation for an employee who is leaving your service.

17. Write a letter of introduction for a friend of long standing.

18. Acknowledge the receipt of this letter of introduction.

19. Write a letter of indorsement for a business friend.

20. Acknowledge the receipt of this letter of indorsement.

CHAPTER VII

THE SALES LETTER

1. Interview a business man and learn what use he makes of sales letters in his business. Report your findings.

2. Study the points of contact used in some actual sales letters and write a short report on your findings.

3. Expand into complete syllogistic form the enthymemes quoted in Section 83. State in each case whether the reasoning is valid or invalid.

4. Find in current articles, advertisements, and letters ten enthymemes. Expand each into complete form. Test each one for its validity.

5. Expand into complete form each of the following enthymemes. State in each case whether the reasoning is valid or invalid.

1. Since it supplies all of the sixteen elements needed by the human body, the oat is the ideal food.

2. The Dictaphone effects great savings and is thus a good investment.

3. People are attracted to the Buick because it is dependable.

4. The end of life is perfection, and death is the end of life.

5. Labor unions are a detriment to society, for they increase the cost of living.

6. New York should be the capital of the United States, for it is the largest city.

7. That company can't be reliable. Why, I have never even heard of them!

8. The middleman should be eliminated, for he is a non-producer.

9. Advertising must pay. Look at the amount of it that is done!

10. All light comes from the sun, and feathers are light.

11. I see Blank has just bought a new car. He must be making lots of money.

12. Blank's is the standard pen, as is shown by the numerous imitations.

13. Take Tanlac and be cured as I was.

14. Since 95 per cent of retailers fail, I don't want to be a retailer.

15. Blessed are the meek, for they shall inherit the earth.

6. Write a sales letter in which the thought proceeds from the general to the particular.

7. Bring in from conversations which you have overheard or in which you have participated examples of reasoning from the particular to the general. State in each case whether you consider the reasoning sound or unsound.

8. Find in current articles, advertisements, or letters examples of generalization. Test each for its validity.

9. Write a sales letter in which the thought proceeds from the particular to the general.

10. Bring in examples showing uses of cause to effect reasoning in daily life. Test the soundness of each example.

11. Write a sales letter in which the argument proceeds from cause to effect.

12. Bring in examples showing daily uses of effect to cause reasoning. Test each example.

13. Write a sales letter in which the argument proceeds from effect to cause.

14. In current magazine articles, editorials, or advertisements find specimens showing the use of examples. Are the examples used effectively?

15. Write a sales letter, using one good example.

16. Write a sales letter, using several good examples.

17. Find in contemporary sources instances showing the use of analogy. Are the analogies sound?

18. Write a sales letter, using the method of analogy as the principal feature.

19. In contemporary writing, find instances of the use of testimony. Evaluate the testimony that is used in each case.

20. Write a sales letter, making use of testimony.

21. In current writing, find instances of refutation, or destructive argument. Criticize each instance.

22. Write a sales letter, making use of destructive arguments.

23. Find in current writing, and especially in advertisements, instances of persuasive appeal. Evaluate each.

24. Write a sales letter in which persuasion plays the principal part.

25. Study the clinchers used in some actual sales letters and report your findings.

26. Outline a follow-up series that has actually been used.

27. Outline an original follow-up series of five letters. State definitely the circumstances in the case.

CHAPTER VIII

BUSINESS REPORTS

1. Study an actual report that has been published in a magazine or in booklet form. Outline the contents of the report. Present your findings in the form of a concise summary.

2. Assume that you are the representative of a club which is looking for a suitable club house. Make the necessary investigation and write your report to the members of the club.

3. Assume that you are the chairman of a student committee appointed to investigate housing conditions in the vicinity of your school. Outline the investigation and present the results in the form of a report to the school authorities.

4. Assume that you are the chairman of a student committee appointed to investigate the standing of fraternities in your school. Outline the plan of investigation and make a report to the student body at large.

5. As a committee chairman it is your duty to investigate and report to some student organization upon the tuition and fees in your own institution as compared with other institutions of similar rank.

6. As an employee in a correspondence department it is your duty to report to the chief what is being done in the department and what improvements are needed.

7. As the advertising manager of a manufacturing company it is your duty to prepare a report on the processes used by this company. This report is to be printed for public distribution.

8. As the head of a department you are called upon to make a report on the nature and quality of the work done by each of your subordinates.

9. As a specialist in life insurance you are asked by the head of a large corporation to make a report to the employees of that corporation on the best plan for taking out a policy.

10. As a consulting engineer you are requested by a city council to submit a report on the advisability of erecting a municipal electric light plant.

11. As the chairman of a committee you are called upon to present to a mass meeting of citizens a report on the best means of securing ice for the community.

12. As the secretary of a social or fraternal organization it is your duty to submit an annual report on the activities of the organization.

13. Select five subjects suitable for business reports and make a good title for each.

14. Outline the contents of an approved subject. See the outline forms used in Chapter VIII.

15. Write a complete report on an approved subject, preferably one which you can discuss from your own experience and observation.

CHAPTER IX

A PROFITABLE STUDY OF WORDS

1. From your reading, compile a list of words that are new to you. Select those which will be most valuable to you when they are made a part of your active vocabulary.

2. Look up your new words in a reliable dictionary and make a note of the principal meanings given for each.

3. Use your new words in sentences of your own construction.

4. Compile a list of technical or trade terms that are used in some vocation or subject with which you are familiar.

5. Use these terms in their technical senses in sentences of your own construction.

6. Find the principal synonyms of each of the following words and use them in original sentences in such a way as to bring out the differences in meaning:

abolish	free	permit	test
accommodate	genuine	plain	time
advertise	grasp	possess	tool
agree	guess	prevent	trade
amusement	hard	privilege	transmit
arrange	heavy	protect	true
attain	huge	quantity	under
beautiful	imagine	question	union
beg	inclose	quit	urge
break	innocent	radical	use
capable	instruct	ready	utility
certain	intrinsic	reflect	vague
chief	journey	refer	variety
common	joy	remove	violent
concern	liberal	rest	way
consider	loud	room	wide
control	manner	sample	word
credit	matter	season	worth
decrease	mistake	select	wretched
destination	motive	short	yield
disturb	nice	situation	
earnest	noise	solid	
enormous	notion	sport	
enthusiasm	occasion	stop	
essential	oppose	success	
fasten	pardon	suppose	
fierce	part	swear	
flood	path	task	

7. Rewrite correctly the homonymous letter in Section 125.

8. Construct sentences of your own which will bring out clearly the difference in meaning between pairs of homonyms in the list in Section 125.

9. Make a logical definition of each of the following terms:

aeroplane	ink	pencil
Americanism	liberty	pessimism
automobile	magazine	razor
Bolshevism	militarism	sentence
democracy	nation	tree
dictionary	optimism	typewriter
education	outline	university
envelope	pacifism	war
genius	paragraph	window
happiness	peace	word

10. Define etymologically each of the following words:

advertise	evolution	money
alliance	experience	month
alphabet	February	monopoly
April	finance	November
athlete	fortune	October
autocracy	Friday	pecuniary
bankrupt	government	salary
book	gymnasium	Saturday
Bolsheviki	interest	sell
candidate	January	September
capital	journal	sincerely
chauffeur	July	sophomore
commerce	league	study
company	letter	Sunday
competitor	library	style
consider	lord	telegraph
December	March	Thursday
democracy	May	Tuesday
dollar	microscope	volume
economics	Monday	Wednesday

11. In sentences of your own construction, use correctly ten foreign phrases from the list in Section 133.

12. Make a list of words which have pleasant associational values for you.

13. Make a list of words which have unpleasant associational content for you.

14. Use correctly each of the following words in a sentence of your own construction:

accept—except	consist—constitute
admit—confess	continual—continuous
advise—inform	council—counsel
affect—effect	couple—two
allude—elude	credible—creditable
allusion—illusion	decide—conclude
alternative—choice	determined—bound
annoy—aggravate	disinterested—uninterested
ought—ought	disclose—expose
avenge—revenge	egoism—egotism
awful—serious	either—neither
beside—besides	emigrate—immigrate
between—among	endorse—approve
bunch—crowd	everybody—anybody
can—may	exceptional—exceptionable
capacity—ability	expect—suppose
claim—maintain	farther—further
climactic—climatic	fewer—less
complected—complexioned	fine—excellent
conscience—conscious	folks—family

gifted—talented
 gone—went
 grand—beautiful
 guess—think
 hanged—hung
 happen—transpire
 healthy—healthful
 imply—infer
 in—into
 incidents—incidence
 ingenious—ingenuous
 instance—instances
 intentionally—advisedly
 kind—sort
 kindness—favor
 lacking—minus
 later—latter
 lay—lie
 leave—let
 lend—loan
 liable—likely
 like—as if
 locate—settle
 lose—loose
 mad—angry
 manage—run
 mend—repair
 me—myself
 most—majority
 much—many
 mutual—common
 merely—simply
 nice—agreeable
 notorious—famous
 number—amount
 occurrence—episode
 opinion—verdict
 opposite—contrary
 ordinary—average
 part—portion

party—person
 patron—customer
 per cent.—percentage
 perpetually—continually
 plenty—plentiful
 plurality—majority
 possible—probable
 practical—practicable
 principal—principle
 problem—proposition
 procure—secure
 promise—assure
 prosecute—persecute
 quite—very
 radical—extreme
 raise—rise
 real—very
 recipe—receipt
 remainder—balance
 reputation—character
 recollect—remember
 respectfully—respectively
 see—witness
 seeded—seedless
 seem—appear
 set—sit
 shall—will
 shape—condition
 simply—really
 social—sociable
 splendid—elegant
 student—scholar
 therefor—therefore
 think—calculate
 through—finished
 ugly—vicious
 unless—except
 which—that
 while—whereas
 who—whom

CHAPTER X

LEARNING TO SPELL

1. Compile cumulatively a list of words which give you trouble in spelling. See Section 141.
2. Classify the words in your cumulative list according to the suggestions given in Section 142 and following.
3. The instructor may give spelling tests of such length and frequency as he sees fit from the list of words in Section 152 or from the shorter lists in other sections of Chapter X.

4. The student should keep a list of the words which he misspells in these tests and should classify them in such a way as he finds most helpful.

5. Add examples to each of the spelling lists given in Chapter X.

6. Interview several persons whose opinion you respect and learn their views on the matter of spelling. Present your findings in the form of a report.

7. Make a study of the question of simplified spelling and try to arrive at some conclusion concerning it. Present the results of your study in the form of a report.

8. Study the statistical table of spelling test results presented in Section 151. What do you find that is worthy of notice? What conclusions can be drawn from these data? Present your findings in the form of a short report.

CHAPTER XI

THE CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES

1. Each student should be given such drill as he needs in the construction of phrases and clauses. He may be asked to find in this book, or in any other that is available, examples of the various kinds of phrases and clauses discussed in Sections 155 and 156. He may be asked to construct original examples of each class. If any student is very deficient in these elementary matters, he should secure a good book on grammar and should use it diligently.

2. Similar drill may be given in the construction of simple, compound, and complex sentences, which are discussed in Section 157. Have the student find specimen sentences of each class and construct similar sentences of his own.

3. The same sort of drill may be given in the construction of the types of sentences which are discussed in Section 158. The student should find examples of each type in the writing of others and should then construct similar examples of his own.

4. The following sentences will provide an opportunity for a detailed study of the principles discussed in Sections 159 to 169. These sentences have been gathered from business letters, business reports, daily advertisements, newspaper articles, and student papers. They involve every problem in sentence structure that is met with in daily writing.

In making a study of these sentences, the student should first of all make sure that he understands the writer's meaning. He should then point out specifically what errors the writer has made or what crudities of expression he has permitted. He

should cite in each instance the rule or principle which is violated. Finally, he should rewrite the sentence, correcting each error and improving the sentence as far as possible. Excellent practice may be obtained from rewriting each sentence in two or more ways.

SENTENCES FOR STUDY AND REVISION

1. They insist on every one paying cash.
2. This is the best of the two orders.
3. Arriving at the office there was my mornings mail.
4. His sales are larger than any of our salesmen.
5. He don't miss a train only on rare occasions.
6. Whomever you hire will have a hard job.
7. Let him and me finish the work.
8. He always catches on very quick.
9. These are real desirable bargains.
10. When dictating a letter stringy sentences are common.
11. Every customer should be allowed to freely choose.
12. He neither has time or money for such pleasure.
13. Whether we enlarge the plant depends on business.
14. He will pay this bill or I shall sue him.
15. Before becoming manager all departments must be known.
16. You only have five days more to accept this offer.
17. I would be glad to hear from you farther.
18. He is as well prepared if not better than me.
19. I wish I could sell goods like he can.
20. Replying to yours of the 14 it was sent today.
21. Every person should file away every letter that they get for future reference.
22. Our customers are numerous and it will be easy to dispose of them at this price.
23. Every home & office stores shops & garages need our pliers.
24. After an interview with another man who had inherited twenty thousand dollars he agreed to join the Co.
25. The only reason we exist is because we undersell anyone.
26. Each employee is to be put on an equal basis.
27. Styles do not change on these so over stocking is impossible since there is always a demand.
28. By giving us an order now we will reserve any tires you need.
29. I have had 15 years experience in shoes.
30. For practical experience I was raised on a farm.
31. The author gives the truth about strikes since we entered the war in the form of statistics.
32. We claim to positively satisfy our customers who always return again.

33. When in town next we would be glad to show you these plans.
34. A book of recipes will be given to every purchaser of a jar showing the delicious things that can be made of honey.
35. I have been connected in store work for the last 4 years off & on.
36. His partner who was always late did his work very poor he thot.
37. When buying goods this ticket will be worth a dollar.
38. He still boasts of his first sale which is poor policy.
39. The goods at last arrived to-day and they had been delayed a week.
40. Replying to yours recently we neither sell boots or shoes and we do not handle the brand of clothes you ask for and we only give 2 percent discount to regular customers.
41. Many letters of inquiry lack to say what they want plainly.
42. Some make a two long letter which is unnecessary in most cases.
43. In reading the information sent along with the machine it was not clear.
44. Be careful not to lose friendship with the customer.
45. An angry customer wants to be handled gently and explain to him why the mistake has happened.
46. A good writer of business letters is one of the most difficult of men to find and there is no department of business in which he can do so much mischief as in the credit department.
47. A letter was sent to each graduate saying that as so much criticism was being directed at the college would he state what was his decision.
48. It is warm weather and these fruits are perishable and it is necessary to sell them at once as we are short on ice.
49. Going on from department to department the whole business is made known to a man.
50. A letter, which aggravates the customer, is worse than none at all.
51. The Blank store one of the Blank chain stores advertise & sell your products lower than us.
52. This had probably been overlooked or the affair has slipped your mind which is easily done sometimes.
53. The cause of your delay may have been due to the mild winter thus not giving you an opportunity of disposing of your goods.

54. If there is anything wrong in this bill I'll appreciate you informing me of the errors which I'll be glad to correct.
55. In order to be a good business house promptness is the outstanding measure.
56. We were not aware of the fact that you were our Albany customer thus necessitating our customary policy of investigating an unknown standing.
57. This makes it possible for us to give your order our prompt attention which no doubt will be shipped today.
58. The reports from your references came in today and they report that you are very fortunate in your standing.
59. We guarantee all goods and shall replace any if they are not satisfactory at our expense.
60. The order has been sent you & you should receive them in a few days if all goes well and we hope it shall.
61. For references I refer you to my old employers on the enclosed sheet.
62. If there is anything we can do to promote our interests please favor us with a communication which we will regard confidentially.
63. I have written you three letters asking remittance and you have failed to do so.
64. My age is as required by you as are the other specified points in your advertisement.
65. This policy shall help our customers by affording them a more prompt service, keep us in closer touch with our customers and will enable us to make collections prompt.
66. Our new building which is modern in every respect will enable us to give more careful attention to all orders.
67. We are sending voucher for 2.15 to cover the damage which may be applied on your next order.
68. It is only for the sake of convenience that this is done both to the firm and to our customers should any questions arise that may be of a misunderstanding to either side.
69. This is simply a form, which has been the policy of our firm, since its establishment, and which has been found a great aid, in the establishment of sound, business relations.
70. You are one of our old customers nevertheless we must investigate your standing because you are new to us at this office.
71. By going after business it will not be long before he gets it.

72. Glancing over your Catalog the filing cases struck my eye.
73. Have had some experience in taking X-Ray pictures electric treatments and massages.
74. The manager can only decide what is to be done.
75. We ask you to kindly give this bill your soonest attention.
76. Being a more expensive tire we must charge more.
77. Our reason for pressing this bill is because our demands are increasing.
78. We would sure appreciate it if you can send check back as early as possible.
79. We hope to satisfy you as well or better than the past.
80. Laundering of towels and tonics cost more barbers say explaining increased prices.
81. The manager told him that if he did not feel better the next day he thought he had better stay home.
82. These bedposts are sawed carved and turned in a lathe and a high degree of polish given them.
83. The cotton is then screened to remove the seeds and the cotton blown off.
84. The chief faults of the talks that are given are those of a poor delivery, clearness is lacking, and they don't have good illustrations.
85. The man that owns the sawmills dog bit me in the road.
86. Hop on the leg that the ears got the water in.
87. After eating our lunch the work was continued.
88. Please report any inattention on the part of the waiters to the manager.
89. The parts were not separated so that it was easy to distinguish one from any other.
90. Many habits are more or less general to people in common.
91. We are the only place in the city where we make our own candy every day.
92. An ordinary key padlock only consists of a case and arm which opens and closes as the key is turned and the key.
93. From our standpoint of view the corner is turned or is rapidly being turned in the financial depression.
94. Take one tablet and skip two hours for six hours running on an empty stomach.
95. After waiting in the waiting room for an hour at least at last the vice president opened the door.
96. I'll be back as early or earlier than usual except some unforeseen thing arises.
97. The third class are composed of the dishonest debtors and for those kind of folks we have no use,

98. In mounting, the bridge the rain blinded the horse and all his pulling at the reins could not stop him.
99. He was not only the founder of this business but of several others.
100. I am neither acquainted with the house or its policy.
101. 5000 gained admission to the game and many more were kept away.
102. We have for sale a piano by a man who is about to leave the city in a fine mahogany case.
103. Either the nations must cut down armaments or another war will surely follow.
104. Let us invite the nations to send us their goods instead of keeping out what God has provided by a high tariff.
105. Union men are reported to be arresting non union men who express non union sentiments for themselves.
106. Erected to the memory of John Phillips accidentally shot as a mark of affection by his brother William.
107. Representative Blank spoke of the notion that the war debts might be repudiated with utter contempt.
108. The board of education has resolved to build a building big enough to house 500 students 3 stories high.
109. The audience seconded the motion to adjourn with enthusiasm.
110. We are not foolish enough to expect the abolition of all wasteful expenditure from the new administration.
111. The senator is praiseworthy for discussing a question which is so aggravating in so calm a manner.
112. One of the home team was the recipient of an injury to his ear of a minor nature.
113. I learn that you are in need of a local agent and hereby apply for that position.
114. I have been referred to your Co. by Mr. Smith as being desirous to secure a competent accountant.
115. Replying to your add consider myself as applicant for the position repairing typewriters.
116. The band should be few enough in no. and quality good enough to join the team on their trips.
117. A man who had sense enough to buy a suit from us will be sure to come back to buy an overcoat to cover that suit.
118. Such a storm as last nights was never remembered in this locality by even the oldest inhabitant.
119. We have not been successful only because of our superior location but even more so by virtue of the excellency of our service.
120. People are ceasing to wonder at the aeroplane by degrees.

121. Like yourself and many others I have realized what opportunities I missed since I left college.
122. Representative Blank presented revolutionary sentiments sufficient to make ones hair bristle on ones head in a calm manner and subdued voice.
123. A good judge can tell if a witness is lying better than the jury.
124. Gaudy ties and other articles of dress detract people's attention.
125. We regret that you had to see some customers leave you because you have always been fair in your dealings with us.
126. Did you see that the Standard Co. finally bought out their competitor in this morning's paper?
127. Men who know made the prediction about crop conditions that a good corn crop is assured Thursday morning.
128. He cant taste smell or hear with one ear.
129. We have formerly informed you of this account and we hope you have overlooked the account.
130. Our furniture will prove a paying proposition to yourself as it has proven to our firm.
131. Having received no reply from our letters on our account we would suggest that you look into this.
132. When over 18 month's old the vegetables need not be strained or mashed any longer.
133. I will not be responsible for any debts contracted only by myself.
134. The company is now free from debt. Having paid the last account the last week.
135. They sang every song thought of and athletic stunts galore.
136. He is said to have gone further than where the place in question is located and stopping the car both got out.
137. At this company has been initiated and carried out many many progressive methods earning the good will of the consuming public.
138. We can only fill these orders at present prices while present stocks last.
139. He had suffered from melancholia for some time back but there was nothing to indicate that he intended to do anything rash but last Sun. he ended his life taking poison.
140. Our store is the largest of any other in this vicinity and on the other hand it is the best equipped.
141. Since writing you on Monday things have developed which compel me to withdraw my offer.

142. It is in this way which good will is fostered by the kindnesses of our friends which has helped us build a large volume of trade which has given the Co. great momentum which is one reason of our great success which is well known in the city.
143. We in other words as well as every other store large or small has to give satisfaction or not last long.
144. Cities will soon have to furnish clinics capable of taking care of not the poor only but those who are unable to afford high doctors prices.
145. When cool enough to handle the rough edges of the bar are cut off with large shears.
146. The machines which loosens the beets is followed by men who carry knives which cut the tops off of the beets which are thrown in piles.
147. After using great care to keep the melons from escaping from the patch without revenue in return a big hail storm cut the vines to pieces.
148. Lack of skilled workmen, high taxes, and supplies of raw material all operate against the industry.
149. Besides that land above us called heaven there is no spot on earth like Colorado in July.
150. Your committee beg to report that it has met, investigated the case and that they have arrived at these conclusions for submission to your pleasure.
151. We shall notify whichever bank the draft is forwarded to allow you the agreed discount.
152. From our communication of the 10 you evidently got the wrong idea from which we intended you to get.
153. Here you can rent a Ford and drive yourself.
154. Beside Mr. Jones the other two names herein set forth may be consulted as to references.
155. We are enclosing a card which if you will fill out we would appreciate very much.
156. He speaks highly of your firm which makes me all the eagerer to apply with you.
157. It looks like we understand each other now perfectly and we hope and trust we will hear from each other soon again.
158. Our investigation shows that you are in unusually good standing at present which is indeed gratifying.
159. By a business man advertising everyday it will keep certain products always in the fore.
160. The roof shall be framed with timber as shown on the enclosed drawings thoroughly spiked together.
161. We have had this roofing applied several times and the job would every time come out quite successful.

162. There is no use of you spending money for cheap goods elsewhere when you can see our big supply.
163. We realize fully well that an advertisement should be not too short to be clear or not too long to be tiresome.
164. We don't want you to buy anything that you dont want but still we think that you'd not make a mistake in buying one of our one ton trucks because it will serve you just as well as a one half will and you will always have more power thus enabling you to haul larger loads when that is necessary as it frequently is especially in rush seasons when saving time is more important than a small difference in initial cost.
165. I am writing in regard to representing your co. and I certainly would be interested in knowing the operations of your co. and I certainly would like to represent your co. in regard to insurance.
166. The weigher by means of postal scales determines the amount of postage and the zone.
167. Will you inform us of Mr. Blank's a merchant of Orion's account with you?
168. Kindly sign & return receipt I am sending in enclosed envelope & oblige.
169. I hope this won't cause you too much extra trouble and I'll hear from you again ere long.
170. Will you please send the following articles to the undersigned and also the bill?
171. Smith & Jones have purchased the entire stock of Blank Brothers. They will go on sale Monday morning.
172. The democrats are lining up for the next battle with cheerfulness.
173. In making our report to the stockholders they feel our accounts are too heavy and we must reduce.
174. The ave. life of this tile is 30 % longer than any tile on the market.
175. I am sure that by writing you personally that a reply will be received.
176. Anyone that would be interested in this offer I desire that they write me at once as you are losing money momentarily by waiting.
177. Swimming is not only taught but life saving fancy diving and many different swimming strokes are taught also.
178. Also we know you'll see our side of this and will look for early reply.
179. If the right person dont see your ad in the morning they will have another chance at night.

180. We are inclosing a list of books which we have on our shelves which we are doubtful of the demand and which we will sell very reasonable.
181. Thanks for order of yesterday which shall be shipped at once.
182. In talking with our customers they say these are the best bargains in town.
183. You are one of our old customers but being new at this office we must investigate your standing.
184. We are the only exclusive shoe store in the city and a place where you can get anything you want in shoes.
185. The firm of Blank Co. have applied to us for credit and we desire you to furnish us with information.
186. We believe in personal letters and not form letters which defeat their purpose.
187. Everyone can find in this magazine an article or two at least of vast importance to them.
188. It is our policy to acknowledge all complaints and the complainant made to feel that he has done the company a favor immediately.
189. Neither of our three letters have been replied to which causes us to become anxious about you.
190. Our terms are strict ninety days like all business in this time of money shyness.
191. It is hard to know who to extend credit to and who to refuse it to.
192. Everyday that I am able to work I am thankful for the fact that I can do so is due entirely to the reason that I took your great medicine.
193. As to his bank balance it is as high on the average if not higher than those of any business here of its size.
194. A friend persuaded me to try your medicine and to my surprise it did. All signs of indigestion having disappeared completely.
195. We are ready to report that the package was lost in transit which was no fault of ours nor can we make a refund for reasons stated.
196. We have your letter in hand in regard to complaint about book bought but we can't take back books which are usually soiled.
197. It is our policy to notify customer before his bill falls due by courteous letter.
198. May we explain that the reason you did not receive the sleds was due to an error on account of the holiday rush.

199. Yourself and family are cordially extended an invitation to at your convenience drop into our store this week and observe the holiday atmosphere.
200. Analyzing the enclosed reports of a group of clients which bought heavy blocks of this security you will grow to appreciate the difference in bonds of one description from another.

CHAPTER XII

PRACTICAL PUNCTUATION

1. Each student should be given such drill as he needs in the correct uses of the various punctuation marks. The chapter on this subject is included mainly for purposes of reference, but some students will need to use it as a basis for intensive study and drill. Each one should discover exactly the nature and source of his difficulties in punctuation. He should then undertake special exercises designed to clarify the subject and to eliminate his errors. All students have difficulty in distinguishing restrictive and non-restrictive elements and all should be given special drill in this matter.

The sentences for revision listed under Chapter XI involve many problems of punctuation and may be used as exercises in punctuation. The following list contains additional sentences involving punctuation problems. Punctuate each sentence correctly and give a good reason for every mark that you use.

SENTENCES FOR STUDY AND PUNCTUATION

1. Mr. jones the president has asked me to write you.
2. He left our firm going to an eastern company on Jan 1 1922.
3. Our clerks who are always cordial will help you to make your selections.
4. While in chicago last week i met john smith an old college chum and a friend who I have not seen for years.
5. In case of accident pull this lever up when the train has come to a full stop pull it back to its former position.
6. Remember to never believe only half you hear is the good advice my first employer gave me.
7. Mr Ernet the pres Mr Fend the vice pres and Mr Conge the cashier all of the above named bank will give you without reservations any information which you want about my character ability and personality.
8. In a conversation with Mr Axel who I believe is in your employ or was until recently he mentioned a vacancy which interested me.

9. I have as I said before just come from Omaha where I held a similar position.
10. You may call me at the Steel hotel which will be my headquarters while in the city.
11. I never remember to have seen a better equipped store says many a customer after a visit to our new location on 13 street.
12. What do you think we will shave you for a dime and give you a drink.
13. Mr. Blank has always taken an active interest in the business and it's development is due largely to him.
14. If you like sweets the grape sugar in raisins is more healthful economical and nourishing than candy.
15. There are three other departments namely the credit department the filling dept and the shipping dept.
16. Will you kindly give such information as you can as to the financial standing general repute for integrity and promptness of Mr. Blank a former resident of your city.
17. Said one paper yesterday more than $\frac{1}{2}$ of all the farms in the U. S. are operated by their owners said another nearly one half are operated by tenants.
18. Our time produces too many great men.
19. Her husband who survives her is a large land owner according to reports.
20. Economy is being practiced on some farms where the presence of women in the fields attracts attention.
21. Here are great values for people who know who seek after the best.
22. That that is is that that is not is not.
23. We will never sell you another dictionary because this one has worn out.
24. No person under fifteen 15 years of age shall operate or drive a motor vehicle by permission from the owner of the car unless such person be accompanied by a person of mature years and in all cases where damage is done by any car driven by any person under fifteen 15 years of age and in all cases where damage is done by the car driven by consent of the owner by reason of negligence of the driver the owner of the car shall be liable for such damage.
25. All of our old customers who are not aware of our change of location should note this new address.
26. The man who neglects an opportunity to get an education says the man who stays in school is a fool.
27. I said and I did not say or if I had said or I should have been wrong.

28. Four deaths all of which were due to influenza were reported yesterday.
29. Human nature under capitalism is utterly bad when socialism is established it will be well nigh perfect.
30. At present the working class can do nothing to improve their condition when they obtain the political power they will be able to do everything.
31. The big five railroad brotherhoods will revive the strike vote and use it if necessary if the promises of the railroad labor board made to the brotherhood chiefs just before the threatened general railroad strike was called off last week are not carried out according to a memorandum which has been mailed to all general and local chairmen and members of the five organizations it was learned today.
32. I have spent the past five years in this office. Meantime studying by myself.
33. The points involved are as follows who ordered these goods when did he order them what instructions did he give.
34. When cicero spoke the people said how well cicero speaks but when demosthenes spoke they said let us go against philip.
35. In your case however we are going to make an exception for we realize that the rule would be unjust.
36. We have considered the whole matter and here is our conclusion you keep the engine and well discount the price ten per cent.
37. We have awaited a reply for a long time so we were glad to receive your letter yesterday.
38. I give and bequeath all the rest residue and remainder of my estate to my children by my present wife phebe together with the share of my estate set apart for my said wife during her natural life upon her decease equally to be divided among them.
39. This error was we must admit a very crude one and we shall so far as it is humanly possible avoid a repetition.
40. Instead of sending the goods to our present location as we specifically directed you to do you sent them to our old location 1416 south street causing us to pay transfer charges.
41. You ask will you be willing to make this right and we reply that we shall be more than willing to do so.
42. Mr J M Jones who recently left your employ has given us your name among others as a reference.
43. Why get so excited over the matter Mr. Blank ready to see my attorney are strong words not at all necessary in this case.

44. It has always been our policy as you are well aware having dealt with us for many years to route orders in the most direct safe and economical manner.
45. Well if thats the way you feel about it there is little left for us to do well simply have to take our medicine.
46. It pleased me greatly you may be sure to hear of your great success and even though a month has passed allow me to extend congratulations.
47. The financial strain is becoming greater all the time therefore we are compelled to modify our credit policy in the following respects.
48. First then we should note that there are certain qualifications easy to name but not so easy to attain which are indispensable to any great success in modern life.
49. The chief vices of education says Ruskin in characteristic manner have arisen from the great fallacy of supposing that noble language is a communicable trick of grammar and accent instead of simply the careful expression of right thought.
50. The statement which we have just quoted is worthy of careful consideration by every student indeed by every person for until he grasps the full significance of that phrase the careful expression of right thought he will never achieve a mastery no he will never even make a beginning in achieving a mastery of his mother tongue.

CHAPTER XIII

HOW TO PREPARE A MANUSCRIPT

1. Write the titles of ten books which you think ought to be in every home library.
2. Write the titles of ten magazines which you consider worth reading.
3. Write the titles of ten daily newspapers.
4. Write the titles of five essays or chapters contained in different books.
5. Write the titles of five articles or stories contained in different magazines.
6. Cite five book references on one subject.
7. Cite five magazine references on one subject.
8. Write ten foreign phrases common in English.
9. Write the correct abbreviations for the names of the days of the week.
10. Write the correct abbreviations for the names of the months of the year.

11. Write the correct abbreviations for the names of the states of the United States.
12. Make a list of the twenty-five most commonly used abbreviations.
13. Indicate the proper use of the hyphen in the syllabication of twenty-five common words.
14. Make a list of compound words which have different meanings when written with the hyphen and when written solid.
15. Add to the lists in Section 197 any examples which suggest themselves to you.
16. Write out the following passage, making it correct in every detail:

If i were to tell you the story of napoleon i should take it from the lips of frenchmen who find no language rich enough to paint the great captain of the nineteenth century were i to tell you the story of washington i should take it from your hearts you who think no marble white enough on which to carve the name of the father of his country but i am to tell you the story of a negro toussaint louverture who has left hardly one written line i am to glean it from the reluctant testimony of his enemies men who despised him because he was a negro and a slave hated him because he had beaten them in battle cromwell manufactured his own army napoleon at the age of twenty seven was placed at the head of the best troops europe ever saw cromwell never saw an army till he was forty this man never saw a soldier till he was fifty cromwell manufactured his own army out of what englishmen the best blood in europe out of the middle class of englishmen the best blood of the island and with it he conquered what englishmen their equals this man manufactured his army out of what out of what you call the despicable race of negroes debased demoralized by two hundred years of slavery one hundred thousand of them imported into the island within four years unable to speak a dialect intelligible even to each other yet out of this mixed and as you say despicable mass he forged a thunderbolt and hurled it at what at the proudest blood of europe the spaniard and sent him home conquered at the most warlike blood in europe the french and put them under his feet at the pluckiest blood in europe the english and they skulked home to jamaica now if cromwell was a general this man was a soldier.

17. Write the following passage correctly:

The conception of business as a profession is a recent one that it has a technique that could be expressed in and taught from printed words is an idea that as little as two decades

ago seemed revolutionary to imagine the business man reading studying the literature of his subject would then have seemed curious but the last ten years and particularly the last five have seen a change business men have found that the experience of other business men is of amazing value to them that the biggest men are willing to share their experience with others that the problems of the grocery store man are essentially those of the shoe retailer and that the fundamental principles of successful manufacturing are equally the fundamental principles of successful merchandising and finally that with the rapid growth of business literature in the last few years literally no phase of business development now lacks its books and periodicals indeed so rapid has been this growth so overwhelming the flood of business printed matter called forth by the suddenly awakened demand for it that the business man finds himself already face to face with the problem which other professional men engineers lawyers physicians have had to face and solve namely to find some clue to the labyrinth some tool which will winnow out the worth while from the trivial the permanent from the ephemeral some sort of index that will enable the business man like any other bibliographical researcher to lay his finger at once on all the available material on the topic on which he is seeking information.

CHAPTER XIV

PARAGRAPH WRITING

I. Find Specimen Paragraphs

1. Find in any book or magazine which you are reading examples of topic development by the various methods discussed in Sections 203-216.
2. Find in current advertisements and in sales letters specimen paragraphs illustrating the various methods of topic development.
3. Find in books or in magazine articles specimen paragraphs of introduction, of transition, and of conclusion.
4. Find similar paragraphs in advertisements or in sales letters.
5. Find in your reading paragraphs which illustrate an effective application of the principles of unity, coherence, and emphasis.
6. Find in your reading paragraphs which violate one or more of these principles.

7. Find in your reading paragraphs which make effective use of a topic sentence.

8. Find in your reading paragraphs which contain no topic sentence.

9. Find in your reading some paragraphs which you consider long and some which you consider short.

II. Paragraphs for Study

The following paragraphs are for classification, analysis, criticism, and revision. The student should point out in each instance what type of paragraph is represented, what methods are employed by the writer, what excellencies and defects are displayed. He should summarize each paragraph in a single sentence. Having made such a study, the student may try his hand at rewriting the paragraph, giving expression to the author's idea in the original but using different methods and devices.

1. The so-called "working class" is not a single class of people united by perfect community of interests. It is rather composed of a number of classes, whose interests are partly identical and partly diverse. It is divided horizontally into various related, yet competing, occupations, and vertically into divisions based upon varying degrees of efficiency and remuneration. They are by no means at peace among themselves, nor perfectly united in hatred of a common enemy. They have in common a desire for higher wages and industrial advancement, and might perhaps unite as a political party upon a platform based upon such community of interests; but it is hardly conceivable that they would ever unite upon the basis of a revolutionary program looking toward the abolition of capitalism and the destruction of private property.

2. At present the railroads lack the money and the credit to finance proper maintenance, not to say additions and improvements. Their net income is neither sufficient nor certain. It is insufficient because railway labor cost is too high. It will be insufficient until labor cost comes down through wage cuts and through modifications of working conditions. It is uncertain because special groups of shippers are exerting pressure upon the roads and upon the Interstate Commerce Commission for privileged concessions, most of which when granted have resulted in little or no freight movement, which are unfair to other shippers who adhere to pre-war procedure in the discussion of rate revision, and which, if made general without wage reduction, would dissipate all hope of net income either adequate or stable, and postpone indefinitely that entrance

into the market by the railroads without which no business recovery can be genuine or permanent.

3. It is not impossible to conceive the surpassing liberty which the Americans enjoy; some idea may likewise be formed of the extreme equality which subsists among them; but the political activity which pervades the United States must be seen in order to be understood. No sooner do you set foot upon the American soil than you are stunned by a kind of tumult; a confused clamor is heard on every side; a thousand simultaneous voices demand the immediate satisfaction of their social wants. Everything is in motion around you; here, the people of one quarter of a town are met to decide upon the building of a church; there, the election of a representative is going on; a little farther, the delegates of a district are posting to the town in order to consult upon some local improvements; or, in another place, the laborers of a village quit their ploughs to deliberate upon the project of a road or a public school. Meetings are called for the sole purpose of declaring their disapprobation of the line of conduct pursued by the Government; while in other assemblies the citizens salute the authorities of the day as the fathers of their country. Societies are formed which regard drunkenness as the principal cause of the evils under which the State labors, and which solemnly bind themselves to give a constant example of temperance.

4. The modern armament game is like a snowball rolled by a small boy; at the start so small that it can be rolled with only one finger, but as he rolls it over the moist snow it grows rapidly and soon takes all his strength to budge it—eventually it grows so big he can not move it at all. Most small boys have sense enough to quit trying to roll a snowball when it is manifestly beyond their strength to do so. The Disarmament Congress will demonstrate whether the statesmen of the world have as much plain sense as the average urchin of nine or ten years.

5. Talk is fluid, tentative, continually “in further search and progress;” while written words remain fixed, become idols even to the writer, found wooden dogmatisms, and preserve flies of obvious error in the amber of the truth. Last and chief, while literature, gagged with linsey-woolsey, can only deal with a fraction of the life of man, talk goes fancy free and may call a spade a spade. Talk has none of the freezing immunities of the pulpit. It cannot, even if it would, become merely æsthetic or merely classical like literature. A jest intervenes, the solemn humbug is dissolved in laughter, and speech runs forth out of the contemporary groove into the open fields of nature, cheery and cheering, like schoolboys out of school.

6. Would you use your driver to sink a two foot putt or try to shoot three hundred yards with your mashie? Many a manufacturing plant is actually using electric motors on about such a basis. In one department, for instance, there is a giant shear needing a tremendous power blow at a certain instant. At another point is a fan requiring only a steady firm push to keep it going. Yet on both these machines they use exactly the same kind of electric motor—like a man playing golf with only one club in his bag. Electric motors are just as different as your golf clubs.

7. From this necessity [ultimate dependence upon overseas food supplies and the dependence upon free access to overseas markets] have grown the great naval armaments of the world, and the burden they imply on all sections of their population. Such nations, of necessity, have engaged in fierce competition for markets for their industrial products. Thus they built up the background of world conflicts. The titanic struggles that have resulted have endangered the very lives of their people by starvation. Their war tactics have, in large degree, been directed to strangle food supplies. One other result of this development is the terrible congestion of populations in manufacturing areas, with all the social and human difficulties that this implies. There is a jeopardy in industrial over-development which has received too little attention because the world has experienced it only during the last eighteen months. In times of industrial depression or great increase in the cost of living, whether brought about by war or by the ebb and flow of world prosperity, these populations, oppressed with misery, turn to political remedies for matters that are beyond human control. They naturally resent the lowering of their standards of living, and they inevitably resort to industrial strife, to strikes and disorder. There is the breeding ground of radicalism—for all such phenomena belong to the towns and not to the country.

8. The British constitution gives the power of veto to the King; but it has not been exercised for more than two centuries, and were it attempted, it would shake the throne. The exercise of the President's veto always rouses eloquence on the part of those who are much disappointed at the defeat of the measure, and the walls of Congress not infrequently resound with denunciation of his tyrannical exercise of a kingly prerogative. But the fact is it has come to be a more frequent characteristic of a republic than of a modern monarchy. For a king or an emperor to interpose a veto to an Act of the popular legislature is really to obstruct the people's will, because he was not chosen by their votes but inherited his royal power. He must, indeed, be careful in exercising a veto lest he incur a protest and arouse a feeling dangerous to his dynasty. The case of the President

is very different. The Constitution established by the people requires the President to withhold his signature from a bill if he disapprove it, and return it with his objections to the House in which it originated. For the President is quite as much the representative of the people as are the members of the two Houses. Indeed, the whole people of the United States is his constituency, and he therefore speaks and acts for them quite as certainly as the members elected from Congressional districts or the Senators from the States. He is not exercising a kingly power in a veto. He is acting in a representative capacity for the whole people, and is preventing a law that he thinks would work to the detriment of the whole country. On this account, the roar of the young lions of Congress against a veto never frightens the occupant of the White House. He is not obstructing popular will; he is only seeking to express it in his veto, as he had the duty and power to do. It is much more to the point for those who hurl their burning words into the *Congressional Record* to gather votes enough to pass the bill over the veto. If they fail in this, they are not likely to disturb anybody's equanimity by trying to establish an analogy between the royal prerogative and a power given the President by the people for their own protection.

9. All farmers may be divided into three classes. There is the "old" farmer, there is the "new" farmer, and there is the "mossback." The old farmer represents the ancient régime. The new farmer is the modern business agriculturist. The mossback is a medieval survival. The old farmer was in his day a new farmer; he was "up with the times," as the times then were. The new farmer is merely the worthy son of a noble sire; he is the modern embodiment of the old farmer's progressiveness. The mossback is the man who tries to use the old methods under the new conditions; he is not "up" with the present time, but "back" with the old times. Though he lives and moves in the present, he really has his being in the past.

10. Having now said what I intended in relation to my first resolution, both in reply to the Senator from Massachusetts, and in vindication of its correctness, I will now proceed to consider the conclusion drawn from it in the second resolution—that the General Government is not the exclusive and final judge of the extent of the powers delegated to it, but that the States, as parties of the compact, have a right to judge, in the last resort, of the infractions of the compact, and of the mode and measure of redress.

11. The error is in the prevailing idea that there isn't enough business for all, and that the prosperity of one nation must be at the expense of others, which is the very reverse of the truth. It is the same idea that prompts the "ca' canny" or go-slow

policy of the labor organizations. The chief indictment against the labor organizations is that they teach the doctrine that there is not work enough to go around, and that it is good policy to make every job go as far as possible. Surely business men who complain of this view ought not to practice the policy themselves or urge it upon statesmen. Nevertheless, the fact is that these national trade rivalries, tariff wars and controversies over markets are based upon the idea that there is not enough business to go around, and that what Germany or England or Belgium gets necessarily leaves less for us. It is just as much a fallacy when acted upon by business men and statesmen as when acted upon by labor organizations, and it is the fruitful source of the rivalries which produce war.

12. A proportionate reduction in the armies and navies of the world to a point that would salvage at least 50 per cent of the enormous sums now expended for such purposes, would not only stop that terrific strain on the material resources of the world, but it would set free a great constructive force in money and in men that could almost re-make the world in a few generations. There is an old saying that a dollar saved is equal to two dollars earned. Unquestionably, the enormous amount saved would be more than quadrupled in its constructive value to the world, as the constructive ability of all those engaged in the making of armament could be diverted to the pursuits of peace. Unlimited national development could be enjoyed in material, educational, and spiritual things, and the sum of it all would be beyond human computation. The commerce and industry of the world will prosper enormously when a condition of human happiness and stability can be enjoyed.

13. I must confess to you that I came here with very serious thoughts this evening, because I have been laboring under the conviction for a long time that the object of a university is to educate, and I have not seen the universities of this country achieving any remarkable or disturbing success in that direction. I have found everywhere the note which I must say I have heard sounded once or twice to-night—that apology for the intellectual side of the university. You hear it at all universities. Learning is on the defensive, is actually on the defensive, among college men, and they are being asked by way of indulgence to bring that also into the circle of their interests. Is it not time we stopped asking indulgence for learning and proclaimed its sovereignty? Is it not time we reminded the college men of this country that they have no right to any distinctive place in any community, unless they can show it by intellectual achievement? That if a university is a place for distinction at all it must be distinguished by the conquests of the mind? I for my part tell you plainly that that is my motto, that I have

entered the field to fight for that thesis, and that for that thesis only do I care to fight.

14. In conclusion, American manners are but an instance or result of the two predominant American characteristics to which I have already referred, and which reappear in so many other things American. A love of independence and of equality, early inculcated, and a keen abhorrence of waste of time, engendered by the conditions and circumstances of a new country, serve to explain practically all the manners and mannerisms of Americans. Even the familiar spectacle of men walking with their hands deep in their trousers' pockets, or sitting with their legs crossed needs no other explanation, and to suggest that, because Americans have some habits which are peculiarly their own, they are either inferior or unmanly, would be to do them a grave injustice.

15. Unity of command is essential in war. Divided leadership results in defeat. Defeat is none the less sure in football in cases where there is divided leadership. Simplicity of plan is essential in war. Only those plans that are free from complexity and that are capable of execution and co-ordination under the stress of combat should be adhered to. Exactly so in football. Simplicity in plan both in general conception and in detail is essential. Most failures in the game of football arise from the violation of this great tactical principle. Complexity and disaster go hand in hand. Concentration for combat is essential in war. Dispersion spells failure. Exactly so in football. Every available player is as much essential to the success of a drive at tackle as was every soldier essential to the success of any drive through the western front.

16. September sees only a moderate diminution in long distance touring. The early fall is the time of recreation for large classes, especially in the farming districts. Fortunately the roads are usually good in September and October. The air has a refreshing tang. The landscapes of the west are rich and ripe, just tinged by the mellowing that marks the change of seasons. It is a good time to take the road. In the future it will not be surprising to find the tourist camps of Nebraska as well filled in the fall as in July and August.

17. Few people are more warm-hearted, genial, and social than the Americans. I do not dwell on this, because it is quite unnecessary. The fact is perfectly familiar to all who have the slightest knowledge of them. Their kindness and warmth to strangers are particularly pleasant, and are much appreciated by their visitors. In some other countries, the people, though not unsociable, surround themselves with so much reserve that strangers are at first chilled and repulsed, although

there are no pleasanter or more hospitable persons anywhere to be found when once you have broken the ice, and learned to know them; but it is the stranger who must make the first advances, for they themselves will make no effort to become acquainted, and their manner is such as to discourage any efforts on the part of the visitor. You may travel with them for hours in the same car, sit opposite to them, and all the while they will shelter themselves behind a newspaper, the broad sheets of which effectively prohibit any attempts at closer acquaintance. The following instance, culled from a personal experience is an illustration. I was a law student at Lincoln's Inn, London, where there is a splendid library for the use of the students and members of the Inn. I used to go there almost every day to pursue my legal studies, and generally sat in the same quiet corner. The seat on the opposite side of the table was usually occupied by another law student. For months we sat opposite each other without exchanging a word. I thought I was too formal and reserved; so I endeavored to improve matters by occasionally looking up at him as if about to address him, but every time I did so he looked down as though he did not wish to see me. Finally I gave up the attempt. This is the general habit with English gentlemen. They will not speak to a stranger without a proper introduction; but in the case I have mentioned surely the rule would have been more honored by a breach than by the observance. Seeing that we were fellow students, it might have been presumed that we were gentlemen and on an equal footing. How different are the manners of the American! You can hardly take a walk, or go for any distance in a train, without being addressed by a stranger, and not infrequently making a friend. In some countries the fact that you are a foreigner only thickens the ice; in America it thaws it. This delightful trait in the American character is also traceable to the same cause as that which has helped us to explain the other peculiarities which have been mentioned. To good Americans, not only are the citizens of America born equal, but the citizens of the world are also born equal.

18. That the second requisite, responsibility, is not fully realized seems surprising in a democratic country, and indeed almost inconsistent with that conception of the representative as a delegate, which is supposed, perhaps erroneously, to be characteristic of democracies. Still the fact is there. One cause, already explained, is to be found in the committee system. Another is the want of organized leadership in Congress. In Europe, a member's responsibility takes the form of his being bound to support the leader of his party on all important divisions. In America, this obligation attaches only when the

party has "gone into caucus," and there resolved upon its course. Not having the right to direct, the leader cannot be held responsible for the action of the rank and file. As a third cause we may note the fact that owing to the restricted competence of Congress many of the questions which chiefly interest the voter do not come before Congress at all, so that its proceedings are not followed with the close and keen attention which the debates and divisions of European chambers excite; and some may think that a fourth cause is found in the method by which candidates for membership of Congress are selected. That method is described in later chapters. Its effect has been to make Congressmen (including Senators) be, and feel themselves to be, the nominees of the party organizations rather than of the citizens, and thus it has interposed what may for some purposes be called a sort of non-conducting medium between the people and their representatives.

19. The first great fact in employment is that it is not the employer who is the real wage payer. It is the consuming public which hires the worker and pays him for his services. But there are forty-five million wage earners in the country, and when to this number their families and dependents are added, it is evident that workers themselves constitute a very large majority of the consuming public. In other words, it is the worker who pays the wages of other workers to make things for his use. The employer is a mere middleman between the buying public and the worker. He is a salesman, as it were, of the worker's services and he cannot sell that service any more than he can any other commodity if the public refuses to buy at the price demanded. It is not in the option of the employer to give employment. It is his function only to interpret so far as he can the public demand for materials and service and to undertake to supply that demand, paying the penalty if his guess does not prove right.

20. Men who have lately been investigating the work of the organization that is pushing I. W. W. membership propaganda say that the order is making an amazing growth so far as the number of cardholders is concerned, that there is a movement that has so far met with success to merge the various minor radical societies of the country into the Wobblies, and that the leaders are claiming that within three years they will have so permeated the unions of the country that the radicals will be in full control. This is not so surprising as to raise any doubt as to its accuracy of statement. Wealth has been conducting itself, generally speaking, in such a way as to irritate others less fortunately situated—the old bourbon attitude of never learning anything. The restlessness that followed the war also contributed to this condition, in a variety of ways, and there

have been other factors that have helped along the notion of the ignorant that their opportunities are being more and more circumscribed. It is impossible to believe, after the Russian example, that any considerable number of people can be induced to accept the theories of the syndicalist, but the fact remains that a dangerous condition, due entirely to the presence of a large element of unassimilated foreign-born, exists in this country.

21. Without doubt social evolution is more rapid than biological evolution. The human body has changed but little since the time of the cave dwellers, but modes of life have undergone a wonderful transformation. During certain periods, too, social movement is accelerated, as in the nineteenth century, when the people of western Europe made greater progress in civilization than during the preceding fifteen centuries. Similarly, the people of Japan have passed through a remarkable development in the brief space of fifty years. The invention of new machines toward the close of the eighteenth century brought about, in less than a half a century, the radical change in methods of production known as the industrial revolution. Political evolution may be more rapid still, as in the case of the French Revolution, which suddenly overthrew the power of the king and the aristocracy, and made the bourgeoisie the controlling influence in the political life of France.

22. After a man has gorged himself for a while, he loses his appetite, and finds himself unfit for any kind of productive work. He cuts down on his eating and begins to feel better. He learns what quantity of food will keep him in good physical and mental condition. He learns from his sad experience one of the chief secrets of health and happiness. He refuses to overeat again, even when the temptation of a Thanksgiving dinner is set before him. Business men, farmers, and laborers all gorged themselves for several years. They sat at the banquet table of prosperity and partook freely. They called for a second helping, and some of them indulged in a third. They stuffed themselves beyond all reason. Now they are suffering from the after-effects and most of them are complaining because they have to pay so high a price for their own folly. The banqueting season is closed for a while. What we need now is some good old-fashioned, home-made dinners. Those who discover this fact and adopt a sound policy of dieting need have no fears for their financial health.

23. Our object must be (1) to make the tenant farmer a landowner; (2) to eliminate as far as possible the conditions which produce the shifting, seasonal, tramp type of labor, and to give the farm laborer a permanent status, a career as a farmer, for which his school education shall fit him, and

which shall open to him the chance of in the end earning the ownership in fee of his own farm; (3) to secure cooperation among the small landowners, so that their energies shall produce the best possible results; (4) by progressive taxation or in other fashion to break up and prevent the formation of great landed estates, especially in so far as they consist of unused agricultural land; (5) to make capital available for the farmers, and thereby put them more on equality with other men engaged in business; (6) to care for the woman on the farm as much as for the man, and to eliminate the conditions which now so often tend to make her life one of gray and sterile drudgery; (7) to do this primarily through the farmer himself, but also when necessary, by the use of the entire collective power of the people of the country; for the welfare of the farmer is the concern of all of us.

24. The doors of the hearth were thrown suddenly open. A blinding whiteness streaked the saffron, and heat almost beyond endurance made me draw behind a column. A workman thrust a pair of deep-blue glasses in my hand. Slowly the great ladle bent forward. From its spout a trickle of fluid iron poured faster and faster until the white cascade, at full flood, seethed into the hearth-bath. A shower of sparks, strange flowery pyrotechnics, shot into the gloom. Through the blue glass I peered into the hearth. Like an infernal ladle it swirled and eddied, a whirlpool of incandescent flame. Leaping tongues of pink and lavender danced in the blue darkness. Shielding their goggled faces from the heat, the workmen cast lumps of rich ore into the hearth-mouth—black silhouettes of men against the blue glare of an uncanny firelight.

25. The engineer is an important member of modern society. If it were not for engineers there would be no automobiles and pleasant joy rides. What can be more enjoyable after a hot summer day than a spin out into the cool, shady lanes of the country? Others may prefer fall or winter, but give me the long summer evening with its beautiful sunset and its twinkling stars. How wonderful are the stars on such a night! And how little do we appreciate their grandeur and beauty! "If the stars should appear one night in a thousand years," says Emerson, "how would man believe and adore; and preserve for many generations the remembrance of the city of God which had been shown." But men are prone to forget the beauties and wonders that are near at hand while they go seeking in the far corners of the earth for inspiring sights. Americans have thought everything worth seeing confined to Europe. But the war has spoiled all that, for many of the greatest cathedrals and works of art have been destroyed by the ruthless Huns, whose head, the Kaiser, has rightly been called "the

beast of Berlin." But his days are numbered. Never again will he or anyone else ambitious to dominate the earth have a chance to plunge the world into war and sorrow as this would-be superman has done. For as our beloved President has so rightly said—"it is taken for granted that peace must be followed by some definite concert of power, which will make it virtually impossible that any such catastrophe should ever overwhelm us again." And the league for peace is the sanest method yet suggested for averting the calamities of a future world war. The old hope of maintaining peace through superior armaments has been blasted forever. Man's inventive genius has gone too far for that. The science of engineering has become so highly developed that safety is no longer possible on land or sea. Distance has been annihilated and space consumed. Thus we see that the engineer can be a great force for evil in the world and is in danger of offsetting the good effects of all his wonderful achievements.

26. A dollar bill in your pocket is worth more to you than ten in somebody else's. That's because it is in the right place. The one conveniently located button on the Hatch One Button Union Suit is likewise worth a great deal more than the row of 8 or 10 buttons on ordinary underwear. That's because, it too, is in the right place. It closes the garment completely and simply, and gives a smooth, comfortable fit from neck to knee or ankle. It eliminates the wrinkling and binding, as when there are two edges to be pulled together. It cuts out the constant bother of keeping a whole row of buttonholes in repair. It saves time in dressing and undressing.

27. But how are those hidden things to be revealed? Philosophers may be right in affirming that we cannot transcend experience; we can, at all events, carry it a long way from its origin. We can magnify, diminish, qualify, and combine experiences, so as to render them fit for purposes entirely new. In explaining sensible phenomena, we habitually form mental images of the ultra-sensible. There are Tories even in science who regard Imagination as a faculty to be feared and avoided rather than employed. They have observed its action in weak vessels, and are unduly impressed by its disasters. But they might with equal justice point to exploded boilers as an argument against the use of steam. With accurate experiment and observation to work upon, Imagination becomes the architect of physical theory. Newton's passage from a falling apple to a falling moon was an act of the prepared imagination, without which the "laws of Kepler" could never have been traced to their foundations. Out of the facts of chemistry the constructive imagination of Dalton formed the atomic theory. Davy was richly endowed with the imaginative faculty, while

with Faraday its exercise was incessant, preceding, accompanying and guiding all his experiments. His strength and fertility as a discoverer is to be referred in great part to the stimulus of his imagination. Scientific men fight shy of the word because of its ultra-scientific connotations; but the fact is that without the exercise of this power, our knowledge of nature would be a mere tabulation of co-existences and sequences. We should still believe in the succession of day and night, of summer and winter; but the conception of Force would vanish from our universe; causal relations would disappear and with them that science which is now binding the parts of nature into an organic whole.

28. Efficiency is everywhere demanded by the spirit of our times. We are living in an age that does things. Whatever the difficulties, it somehow gets things done. It brings to pass even the seemingly impossible. Are there mountains in the way? It goes over, under, or through. There are no mountains! Is there an isthmus, preventing the union of great seas and blocking commerce? It erases the isthmus from the world's map. There is no isthmus! The masterful time-spirit has little patience with puttering inefficiency. It expects every man to pull his weight, to earn his keep, to do his own task, and not to whimper.

29. Like beetles the steel-workers clambered over the empty frame. Far out on the end of narrow beams they hung above the void; on the tops of slender columns they clung, waiting to swing into place a ton of steel. Braced against nothing but empty space, they pounded red-hot rivets with their clattering hammers; like flies they caught the slim-spun threads of the derricks and swung up to some inaccessible height. On flimsy platforms the glow of their forges blinked red in the twilight.

30. The only absolutely and unapproachably heroic element in the soldier's work seems to be—that he is paid little for it—and regularly; while you traffickers, and exchangers, and others occupied in presumably benevolent business, like to be paid much for it—and by chance. I never can make out how it is that a *knight-errant* does not expect to be paid for his trouble, but a *pedlar-errant* always does;—that people are willing to take hard knocks for nothing, but never to sell ribands cheap;—that they are ready to go on fervent crusades, to recover the tomb of a buried God, but never on any travels to fulfill the orders of a living one:—that they will go anywhere barefoot to preach their faith, but must be well bribed to practice it, and are perfectly ready to give the Gospel gratis, but never the loaves and fishes.

31. There is a very renowned argument much prized and much quoted by theologians, in which the universe is compared to a

watch. Let us deal practically with this comparison. Supposing a watch-maker, having completed his instrument, to be so satisfied with his work as to call it very good, what would you understand him to mean? You would not suppose that he referred to the dial-plate in front and the chasing of the case behind, so much as to the wheel and pinions, the springs and jeweled pivots of the works within—to those qualities and powers, in short, which enable the watch to perform its work as a keeper of time. With regard to the knowledge of such a watch he would be a mere ignoramus who would content himself with outward inspection. I do not wish to say one severe word here to-day, but I fear that many of those who are very loud in their praises of the works of the Lord know them only in this outside and superficial way. It is the inner works of the universe which science reverently uncovers; it is the study of these that she recommends as a discipline worthy of all acceptance.

III. Paragraph Topics for Development

The following suggestive topic sentences may be used in various ways. The student may be asked to criticize the topic itself. He may be asked to outline the ideas which are suggested by the topic sentence. He may be asked to point out the method of development which is most appropriate in any given case. He may be asked to develop selected topics into good paragraphs, using one or more of the methods discussed in Chapter XIV.

1. Most of the radicalism of the present day represents the defensive reactions of inadequates who are afraid of facing their own personal problems.

2. A criticism of taxes unaccompanied by a constructive program which shows how retrenchment can be made is worthless.

3. The second or third generation is slated by fate to dissipate the accumulations of the first.

4. The sales tax would be unjustifiable because it would bear down more heavily upon the weak than upon the strong.

5. Slow payment of the Sept. 15th instalment of this year's income taxes is not surprising.

6. Even in the most democratic sections of our democratic west there are some signs of social stratification.

7. Architectural styles in dwelling houses have changed a great deal within the last generation.

8. The number of organizations seeking to eliminate the middleman is growing continually.

9. A large part of the crimes committed by youths in these days can be traced to the "movies".

10. The scope of our public schools has grown far beyond the original purpose.

11. The League of Nations is a live organization.

12. The farmers are as much entitled as the railroads to a guaranteed return on their investment.

13. Knowledge alone is not power.

14. Engineering should now be classed among the learned professions.

15. Business should now be classed among the learned professions.

16. No one receives an education.

17. The chief end of education is the making of a man.

18. True intellectual freedom is gained only through discipline.

19. Make a man and he will find his work.

20. He who commands the sources of light must become a bearer of light to others.

21. Student life is not real life.

22. Ideals are to run races with.

23. A man's mind should contain a library, a parlor, and a drawing-room, as well as a workshop.

24. The value of teachers grows less as the square of their distance increases.

25. Higher education begins when a man leaves home.

26. Habit is the fly-wheel of society.

27. To him that hath shall be given.

28. Theory is only generalized practice.

29. Nothing artificial can long endure.

30. A man cannot speak but he judges himself.

31. He is great who confers the most benefits.

32. The thief steals from himself.

33. No sentence will hold the whole truth.

34. The world is full of judgment days.

35. Traveling is a fool's paradise.

36. What a man does, that he has.

37. He that writes to himself, writes to an eternal public.

38. Never a sincere word was utterly lost.

39. Real action is in silent moments.

40. There is no lack of opportunity for heroic action in everyday life.

41. Voting should be regarded as an opportunity instead of as a duty.

42. Those who work hardest are paid least.

43. What did our forefathers mean by saying that "All men are created free and equal"?

44. There is some good in everything.

45. The success of a modern business is measured in terms of its service to society.

46. The automobile has developed a new type of nomad.

47. Idleness has killed more people than has work.

48. Some men have been successful without good health.

49. A man's business methods may be inferred from the manner in which he drives his automobile.

50. Where does the West really begin?

51. I have several good reasons for not wanting to be a doctor.

52. Even if he devotes his whole life to study, a man can do no more than to pick up a few of learning's crumbs.

53. Do intelligence tests furnish a reliable indication of a person's mental ability?

54. Men might profit much from a study of social organization among ants.

55. Westerners are more congenial than Easterners.

56. The trade-unions have raised the standard of living among American workingmen.

57. Aeroplanes will never be as numerous as automobiles are to-day.

58. System is essential to the successful conduct of any business.

59. Government employees are poorly paid as compared with the employees of private corporations.

60. The sales letter is the most effective form of advertising.

61. The geologist is an indispensable member of our present-day industrial organization.

62. Preparation for war increases the probability of war.

63. Present-day business methods are far superior to those of a generation ago.

64. Men are like sheep, in more ways than one.

65. Modern man is a slave to the god of efficiency.

66. The United States has a mortgage on Europe.

67. Most of the differences between men concern means and not ends.

68. Most men barter life for a living.

69. Man invents the automobile and loses the use of his legs.

70. All evolution has been in the direction of a maximum of results with a minimum of means.

71. All men suffer from ingrown ideas.

72. The cartoonist has more influence upon the modern reading public than the editor has.

73. Seven and nine have always been regarded as mystic numbers.

74. Men are unhappy chiefly because they seek to control the external world and to get what they want, instead of controlling their own minds and wanting what they get.

75. The dance will have to be either reformed or eliminated.

76. The whole structure of modern civilization is dependent upon iron.

77. Business letter writing is rapidly developing into a new profession.

78. The city manager plan is growing to be a great success.

79. Legal evolution necessarily lags behind economic development.

80. The eight hour working day should be made universal.

81. Marxian socialism is essentially revolutionary.

82. Farmers as a class are more conservative than city people.

83. A student's grades in college indicate his chances for success in later life.

84. There is a close connection between unemployment and crime.

85. Socialism is a faith rather than a science.

86. Farmers should organize as laborers have done.

87. Modern society is dependent upon the skill and achievement of its engineers.

88. Patent medicine advertising should be prohibited by law.

89. Science is worth studying for its own sake, apart from any practical applications.

90. The bank is the hub of the modern commercial world.

91. The railways are the arteries through which the life-blood of the nation flows.

92. Railroad workers as a class are better paid than any other workers.

93. A man may become wise without ever reading a single book.

94. If nature had intended men to be thinkers, she would have made them all deaf.

95. The theory of evolution underlies all modern thought.

96. As compared with a small college, a large university has some advantages and some disadvantages.

97. There should be a public library in every town, no matter how small the town is.

98. Economic progress will be less marked in the next century than it was in the past century.

99. There are some evidences that politics is on a higher plane than it was a generation ago.

100. The most theoretical researches often prove to be the most practical ones.

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